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A TEXTBOOK

ON

CIVIL ENGINEERING

INTERNATIONAL CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS
SCRANTON, PA.

ARITHMETIC
ALGEBRA
LOGARITHMS
GEOMETRY AND TRIGONOMETRY
ELEMENTARY MECHANICS
HYDRAULICS
PNEUMATICS
ELEMENTARY GRAPHICAL STATICS

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PREFACE.

On account of a great and increasing demand for a reduction in the size of the drawing volume, we have had it reset for this reprint. The drawing plates have been printed on special thin, tough paper and are inserted on guards, so that they may be opened to the full width. These plates are now ten inches long between the border lines instead of twelve inches, as formerly, but it is not thought that this slight reduction in size will in any way lessen the value of the plates, and the advantages of having the drawing volume uniform in size with the other volumes of the set are obvious. On account of the thinness of this volume, we have placed the first of the two Key volumes at the end, to follow Mechanical Drawing. The mapping plates have also been reduced to the same size as the drawing plates and are inserted in their proper places in the volume containing the paper entitled Mapping.

On account of the relative thinness of the second Key volume and the Tables and Formulas volume, they have been combined under one cover. As the result of these changes, there are now ten volumes in this set instead of twelve, as formerly; all the volumes are nearly equal in size; and the set is greatly improved, both in appearance and in convenience for reference.

These volumes comprise a thorough elementary treatment of the theory and practice of civil engineering. The groundwork is covered by the papers on mathematics and

mechanics, the latter embracing the subjects of Elementary Mechanics, Hydromechanics, Pneumatics, and Graphical Statics. What might be termed the technical division embraces the following subjects, which are comprised in six volumes bearing the subtitles specified herewith:

Bridge Engineering.—This volume contains the following papers with their Examination Questions: Strength of Materials, Analysis of Stresses, Proportioning the Material, Details of Construction, and Details, Bills, and Estimates.

Railroad Engineering.—This volume contains the following papers with their Examination Questions: Surveying, Land Surveying, Mapping, Railroad Location, Railroad Construction, Track Work, and Railroad Structures.

Municipal Engineering.—This volume contains the following papers with their Examination Questions: Drainage, Sewerage, Streets and Highways, and Paving.

Hydraulic Engineering.—This volume contains the following papers with their Examination Questions: Water-Wheels, Hydraulic Machinery, Water Supply and Distribution, and Irrigation.

Steam Engineering.—This volume contains the following papers with their Examination Questions: Heat, Steam and Steam Engines, Steam Boilers, and Locomotives.

Electrical Engineering.—This volume contains the following papers with their Examination Questions: Dynamos and Motors, Electric Lighting, and Electric Railways.

In addition to the volumes already mentioned there is another volume bearing the subtitle *Natural Science;* this volume contains the following papers with their Examination Questions: Descriptive Astronomy, Elementary Chemistry, Blowpiping, Mineralogy, and Geology.

These volumes have been printed, in so far as was possible, from the plates used in printing the Bound Volumes of the other Courses containing the same papers. For this reason, the page numbers, article numbers, formula numbers, etc. are not continuous throughout all the volumes containing the Instruction Papers and Examination Questions. This will cause no confusion, for there are no references from one

volume to another. The page numbers, however, have been made continuous throughout each volume.

By leaving out demonstrations of rules and formulas, we have been enabled to cover the subjects treated in from one-third to one-fourth the number of pages that would otherwise have been required. We have selected that rule or formula which seemed best adapted to the requirements of the case and have shown the reader how to use it—illustrating its use, whenever practicable, by such examples as would be likely to occur in practice.

INTERNATIONAL CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS.

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ARITHMETIC.

(SECTION 1.)

DEFINITIONS.

1. **Arithmetic** is the art of reckoning, or the study of numbers.

2. A **unit** is *one*, or a single thing, as *one*, *one* boy, *one* horse, *one* dozen.

3. A **number** is a unit or a collection of units, as *one*, *three* apples, *five* boys.

4. The **unit of a number** is one of the collection of units which constitutes the number. Thus, the unit of *twelve* is *one*, of *twenty* dollars is *one* dollar.

5. A **concrete number** is a number applied to some particular kind of object or quantity, as three *horses*, five *dollars*, ten *pounds*.

6. An **abstract number** is a number that is not applied to any object or quantity, as *three*, *five*, *ten*.

7. **Like numbers** are numbers which express units of the *same kind*, as 6 *days* and 10 *days*, 2 *feet* and 5 *feet*.

8. **Unlike numbers** are numbers which express units of *different kinds*, as ten *months* and eight *miles*, seven *dollars* and five *feet*.

NOTATION AND NUMERATION.

9. Numbers are expressed in three ways: (1) by words; (2) by figures; (3) by letters.

10. **Notation** is the art of expressing numbers by figures or letters.

11. **Numeration** is the art of reading the numbers which have been expressed by figures or letters.

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12. The **Arabic notation** is the method of expressing numbers by figures. This method employs ten different **figures** to represent numbers, viz.:

Figures	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Names	*naught, cipher, or zero.*	*one*	*two*	*three*	*four*	*five*	*six*	*seven*	*eight*	*nine*

The first character (0) is called **naught, cipher,** or **zero,** and, when standing alone, has no value.

The other nine figures are called **digits,** and each one has a value of its own.

Any whole number is called an **integer.**

13. As there are only ten *figures* used in expressing numbers, each *figure* must express a different *value* at different times.

14. The value of a figure depends upon its *position* in relation to others.

15. Figures have **simple** values and **local** or **relative** values.

16. The **simple** value of a figure is the value it expresses when standing alone.

17. The **local** or **relative** value is the *increased* value it expresses by having other figures placed on its right.

For instance, if we see the figure 6 standing alone, thus. **6**

we consider it as *six units*, or simply **six.**

Place another 6 to the *left* of it; thus. **66**

The original figure is still *six units*, but the second one is *ten times* 6, or 6 **tens.**

If a third 6 be now placed still one place further to the *left*, it is increased in value *ten times* more, thus making it 6 **hundreds** **666**

A fourth 6 would be 6 **thousands** **6666**

A fifth 6 would be 6 **tens of thousands,** or **sixty thousand** **66666**

A sixth 6 would be 6 **hundreds of thousands** . **666666**

A seventh 6 would be 6 **millions** **6666666**

The entire line of seven figures is read *six millions, six hundred sixty-six thousands, six hundred sixty-six.*

18. The **increased value** of each of these figures is its *local* or *relative* value. Each figure is *ten times* greater in value than the one immediately on its *right*.

19. The **cipher** (0) has no value itself, but it is useful in determining the place of other figures. To represent the number *four hundred five*, two digits only are necessary, one to represent *four hundred*, and the other to represent *five units;* but if these two digits are placed together, as 45, the 4 (being in the second place) will mean 4 *tens*. To mean 4 *hundreds*, the 4 should have two figures on its right, and a *cipher* is therefore inserted in the place usually given to *tens*, to show that the number is composed of *hundreds* and *units* only, and that there are no *tens*. *Four hundred five* is therefore expressed as 405. If the number were *four thousand and five*, two ciphers would be inserted; thus, 4005. If it were *four hundred fifty*, it would have the *cipher* at the right-hand side to show that there were no *units*, and only *hundreds and tens;* thus, 450. *Four thousand and fifty* would be expressed 4050, the first cipher indicating that there are no hundreds and the second that there are no units.

NOTE.—When speaking of the figures of a number by referring to them as first figure, second figure, etc., always begin to count at the *left*. Thus, in the number 41,625, 4 is the first figure, 6 the third figure, 5 the fifth or last figure, etc.

20. In *reading* figures, it is usual to point off the number into groups of three figures each, beginning with the right-hand or **units** column, a comma (,) being used to point off these groups.

Billions.				*Millions.*			*Thousands.*				*Units.*		
Hundreds of Billions.	Tens of Billions.	Billions.	,	Hundreds of Millions.	Tens of Millions.	Millions.	,	Hundreds of Thousands.	Tens of Thousands.	Thousands.	,	Hundreds of Units.	Tens of Units.	Units.
4	3	2	,	1	9	8	,	7	6	5	,	4	3	2

In *pointing off* these figures, begin at the right-hand figure and count—*units*, *tens*, *hundreds;* the next group of three figures is *thousands*, therefore, we insert a comma (,) before beginning with them. Beginning at the figure 5, we say *thousands*, *tens of thousands*, *hundreds of thousands*, and insert another comma; we next read *millions*, *tens of millions*, *hundreds of millions*, and insert another comma; we then read *billions*, *tens of billions*, *hundreds of billions.*

The entire line of figures would be read: *Four hundred thirty-two billions*, *one hundred ninety-eight millions*, *seven hundred sixty-five thousands*, *four hundred thirty-two.* When we thus *read* a line of figures it is called **numeration,** and if the **numeration** be changed back to *figures*, it is called **notation.**

For instance, the writing of the figures,

72,584,623,

would be the **notation,** and the **numeration** would be *seventy-two millions*, *five hundred eighty-four thousands*, *six hundred twenty-three.*

21. NOTE.—It is customary to leave the *s* off the words millions, thousands, etc., in cases like the above, both in speaking and writing; hence, the above would usually be expressed, seventy-two million, five hundred eighty-four thousand, six hundred twenty-three.

22. The four fundamental processes of Arithmetic are **addition, subtraction, multiplication,** and **division.** They are called fundamental processes, because all operations in Arithmetic are based upon them.

ADDITION.

23. **Addition** is the *process* of *finding* the *sum* of *two* or *more* numbers. The sign of addition is $+$. It is read *plus*, and means *more.* Thus, $5+6$ is read 5 *plus* 6, and means that 5 and 6 are to be added.

24. The sign of equality is $=$. It is read *equals* or *is equal to.* Thus, $5+6=11$ may be read 5 plus 6 *equals* 11.

25. *Like numbers* can be added, but *unlike numbers* cannot. Thus, 6 dollars *can* be added to 7 dollars, and the *sum* will be 13 dollars, but 6 dollars *cannot* be added to 7 *feet.*

26. The following table gives the sum of any two numbers from 1 to 12:

TABLE 1.

1 and 1 are 2	2 and 1 are 3	3 and 1 are 4	4 and 1 are 5
1 and 2 are 3	2 and 2 are 4	3 and 2 are 5	4 and 2 are 6
1 and 3 are 4	2 and 3 are 5	3 and 3 are 6	4 and 3 are 7
1 and 4 are 5	2 and 4 are 6	3 and 4 are 7	4 and 4 are 8
1 and 5 are 6	2 and 5 are 7	3 and 5 are 8	4 and 5 are 9
1 and 6 are 7	2 and 6 are 8	3 and 6 are 9	4 and 6 are 10
1 and 7 are 8	2 and 7 are 9	3 and 7 are 10	4 and 7 are 11
1 and 8 are 9	2 and 8 are 10	3 and 8 are 11	4 and 8 are 12
1 and 9 are 10	2 and 9 are 11	3 and 9 are 12	4 and 9 are 13
1 and 10 are 11	2 and 10 are 12	3 and 10 are 13	4 and 10 are 14
1 and 11 are 12	2 and 11 are 13	3 and 11 are 14	4 and 11 are 15
1 and 12 are 13	2 and 12 are 14	3 and 12 are 15	4 and 12 are 16
5 and 1 are 6	6 and 1 are 7	7 and 1 are 8	8 and 1 are 9
5 and 2 are 7	6 and 2 are 8	7 and 2 are 9	8 and 2 are 10
5 and 3 are 8	6 and 3 are 9	7 and 3 are 10	8 and 3 are 11
5 and 4 are 9	6 and 4 are 10	7 and 4 are 11	8 and 4 are 12
5 and 5 are 10	6 and 5 are 11	7 and 5 are 12	8 and 5 are 13
5 and 6 are 11	6 and 6 are 12	7 and 6 are 13	8 and 6 are 14
5 and 7 are 12	6 and 7 are 13	7 and 7 are 14	8 and 7 are 15
5 and 8 are 13	6 and 8 are 14	7 and 8 are 15	8 and 8 are 16
5 and 9 are 14	6 and 9 are 15	7 and 9 are 16	8 and 9 are 17
5 and 10 are 15	6 and 10 are 16	7 and 10 are 17	8 and 10 are 18
5 and 11 are 16	6 and 11 are 17	7 and 11 are 18	8 and 11 are 19
5 and 12 are 17	6 and 12 are 18	7 and 12 are 19	8 and 12 are 20
9 and 1 are 10	10 and 1 are 11	11 and 1 are 12	12 and 1 are 13
9 and 2 are 11	10 and 2 are 12	11 and 2 are 13	12 and 2 are 14
9 and 3 are 12	10 and 3 are 13	11 and 3 are 14	12 and 3 are 15
9 and 4 are 13	10 and 4 are 14	11 and 4 are 15	12 and 4 are 16
9 and 5 are 14	10 and 5 are 15	11 and 5 are 16	12 and 5 are 17
9 and 6 are 15	10 and 6 are 16	11 and 6 are 17	12 and 6 are 18
9 and 7 are 16	10 and 7 are 17	11 and 7 are 18	12 and 7 are 19
9 and 8 are 17	10 and 8 are 18	11 and 8 are 19	12 and 8 are 20
9 and 9 are 18	10 and 9 are 19	11 and 9 are 20	12 and 9 are 21
9 and 10 are 19	10 and 10 are 20	11 and 10 are 21	12 and 10 are 22
9 and 11 are 20	10 and 11 are 21	11 and 11 are 22	12 and 11 are 23
9 and 12 are 21	10 and 12 are 22	11 and 12 are 23	12 and 12 are 24

This table should be carefully committed to memory. Since 0 has no value, the sum of any number and 0 is the number itself; thus, 17 and 0 are 17.

27. For *addition*, place the numbers to be added directly under each other, taking care to place *units* under *units*, *tens* under *tens*, *hundreds* under *hundreds*, and so on.

When the numbers are thus written, the *right-hand figure* of *one number* is placed *directly under the right-hand figure*

of the *number above it*, thus bringing the unit figures of all the numbers to be added in the same vertical line. Proceed as in the following examples:

28. EXAMPLE.—What is the sum of 181, 222, 21, 2, and 413?

SOLUTION.—

```
        181
        222
         21
          2
        413
      ------
sum     789  Ans.
```

EXPLANATION.—After placing the numbers in proper order, begin at the bottom of the right-hand or *units* column, and add, mentally repeating the different sums. Thus, three and two are five and one are six and two are eight and one are nine, the sum of the numbers in *units* column. Place the 9 directly beneath as the first or *units* figure in the sum.

The sum of the numbers in the next or *tens* column equals 8 *tens*, which is the second or *tens* figure in the sum.

The sum of the numbers in the next or *hundreds* column equals 7 *hundreds*, which is the third or *hundreds* figure in the sum.

The sum or answer is 789.

29. EXAMPLE.—What is the sum of 425, 86, 9,215, 4, and 907?

SOLUTION.—

```
        425
         86
       9215
          4
        907
      ------
         27
         60
       1500
       9000
      ------
sum   10587  Ans.
```

EXPLANATION.—The sum of the numbers in the first or units column is seven and four are eleven and five are sixteen and six are twenty-two and five are twenty-seven, or 27 units; i. e., two tens and seven units. Write 27 as shown.

The sum of the numbers in the second or tens column is six tens, or 60. Write 60 underneath 27 as shown. The sum of the numbers in the third or hundreds column is 15 hundreds, or 1,500. Write 1,500 under the two preceding results as shown. There is only one number in the fourth or thousands column, nine, which represents 9,000. Write 9,000 under the three preceding results. Adding these four results, the sum is 10,587, which is the sum of 425, 36, 9,215, 4, and 907.

NOTE.—It frequently happens, when adding a long column of figures, that the sum of two numbers, one of which does not occur in the addition table, is required. Thus, in the first column above, the sum of 16 and 6 was required. We know from the table that $6 + 6 = 12$; hence, the first figure of the sum is 2. Now, the sum of any number less than 20 and of any number less than 10 must be less than thirty, since $20 + 10 = 30$; therefore, the sum is 22. Consequently, in cases of this kind, add the first figure of the larger number to the smaller number and, if the result is greater than 9, increase the second figure of the larger number by 1. Thus, $44 + 7 = ?$ $4 + 7 = 11$; hence, $44 + 7 = 51$.

30. The addition may also be performed as follows:

```
          425
           36
         9215
            4
          907
      ------
sum     10587  Ans.
```

EXPLANATION.—The sum of the numbers in *units* column = 27 *units*, or 2 *tens* and 7 *units*. Write the 7 *units* as the first or right-hand figure in the sum. Reserve the two *tens* and add them to the figures in *tens* column. The sum of the figures in the *tens* column, plus the 2 *tens* reserved and carried from the *units* column = 8, which is written down as the second figure in the sum. There is nothing to carry to the next column, because 8 is less than 10. The sum of the numbers in the next column is 15 *hundreds*, or 1 *thousand* and 5 *hundreds*. Write down the 5 as the third or *hundreds* figure in the sum and carry the 1 to the next column. $1 + 9 = 10$, which is written down at the left of the other figures.

The second method saves space and figures, but the first is to be preferred when adding a long column.

31. EXAMPLE.—Add the numbers in the column below:

SOLUTION.—

	890
	82
	90
	893
	281
	80
	770
	88
	492
	80
	888
	84
	191
sum	8899 Ans.

EXPLANATION.—The sum of the digits in the first column equals 19 *units*, or 1 *ten* and 9 *units*. Write down the 9 and carry 1 to the next column. The sum of the digits in the second column + 1 = 109 *tens*, or 10 *hundreds* and 9 *tens*. Write down the 9 and carry the 10 to the next column. The sum of the digits in this column plus the 10 reserved = 38. The entire sum is 3,899.

32. Rule.—I. *Begin at the right, add each column separately, and write the sum, if it be only one figure, under the column added.*

II. *If the sum of any column consists of two or more figures, put the right-hand figure of the sum under that column, and add the remaining figure or figures to the next column.*

33. Proof.—*To prove addition, add each column from top to bottom. If you obtain the same result as by adding from bottom to top, the work is probably correct.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

34. Find the sum of

(*a*) 104 + 203 + 613 + 214.
(*b*) 1,875 + 3,143 + 5,826 + 10,832.
(*c*) 4,865 + 2,145 + 8,173 + 40,084.
(*d*) 14,204 + 8,173 + 1,065 + 10,042.

Ans. (*a*) 1,134. (*b*) 21,676. (*c*) 55,267. (*d*) 33,484.

(*e*) 10,832 + 4,145 + 3,133 + 5,872.
(*f*) 214 + 1,231 + 141 + 5,000.
(*g*) 123 + 104 + 425 + 126 + 327.
(*h*) 6,354 + 2,145 + 2,042 + 1,111 + 3,333.

Ans. (*e*) 23,982. (*f*) 6,586. (*g*) 1,105. (*h*) 14,985.

SUBTRACTION.

35. In Arithmetic, **subtraction** is the process of finding how much greater one number is than another.

The greater of the two numbers is called the **minuend.**

The smaller of the two numbers is called the **subtrahend.**

The number left after subtracting the *subtrahend* from the *minuend* is called the **difference,** or **remainder.**

36. The sign of subtraction is — . It is read **minus,** and means *less.* Thus, 12 — 7 is read 12 *minus* 7, and means that 7 is to be taken from 12.

37. EXAMPLE.—From 7,568 take 3,425.

SOLUTION.—

minuend	7568
subtrahend	3425
remainder	4143 Ans.

EXPLANATION.—Begin at the right-hand or *units* column and subtract in succession each figure in the subtrahend from the one directly above it in the minuend, and write the remainders below the line. The result is the entire remainder.

38. When there are more figures in the *minuend* than in the *subtrahend,* and when some figures in the *minuend* are *less* than the figures directly under them in the *subtrahend,* proceed as in the following example:

EXAMPLE.—From 8,453 take 844.

SOLUTION.—

minuend	8453
subtrahend	844
remainder	7609 Ans.

EXPLANATION.—Begin to subtract at the right-hand or *units* column. We cannot take 4 from 3, and must, therefore, borrow 1 from 5 in *tens* column and annex it to the 3 in

units column. The 1 *ten* = 10 *units*, which added to the 3 in *units* column = 13 *units*. 4 from 13 = 9, the first or *units* figure in the remainder.

Since we borrowed 1 from the 5, only 4 remains; 4 from 4 = 0, the second or *tens* figure. We cannot take 8 from 4, and must, therefore, borrow 1 from 8 in *thousands* column. Since 1 *thousand* = 10 *hundreds*, 10 *hundreds* + 4 *hundreds* = 14 *hundreds*, and 8 from 14 = 6, the third or *hundreds* figure in the remainder.

Since we borrowed 1 from 8, only 7 remains, from which there is nothing to subtract; therefore, 7 is the next figure in the remainder or answer.

The operation of borrowing is placing 1 before the figure following the one from which it is borrowed. In the above example the 1 borrowed from 5 is placed before 3, making it 13, from which we subtract 4. The 1 borrowed from 8 is placed before 4, making 14, from which 8 is taken.

39. EXAMPLE.—Find the difference between 10,000 and 8,763.

SOLUTION.—

minuend	10000
subtrahend	8763
remainder	1237 Ans.

EXPLANATION.—In the above example we borrow 1 from the second column and place it before 0, making 10; 3 from 10 = 7. In the same way we borrow 1 and place it before the next cipher, making 10; but as we have borrowed 1 from this column and taken it to the *units* column, only 9 remains, from which to subtract 6; 6 from 9 = 3. For the same reason we subtract 7 from 9 and 8 from 9 for the next two figures, and obtain a total remainder of 1,237.

40. Rule.—*Place the subtrahend or smaller number under the minuend or larger number, in the same manner as for addition, and proceed as in Arts.* ***37, 38,*** *and* ***39.***

41. Proof.—*To prove an example in subtraction, add the remainder to the subtrahend. The sum should equal the minuend. If it does not, a mistake has been made, and the work should be done over.*

Proof of the above example:

subtrahend	8768
remainder	1237
minuend	10000

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

42. From

(*a*) 94,278 take 62,574.
(*b*) 53,714 take 25,824.
(*c*) 71,832 take 58,109.
(*d*) 20,804 take 10,408.
(*e*) 310,465 take 102,141.
(*f*) (81,043 + 1,041) take 14,831.
(*g*) (20,482 + 18,216) take 21,214.
(*h*) (2,040 + 1,213 + 542) take 3,791.

Ans. (*a*) 31,704. (*b*) 27,890. (*c*) 13,723. (*d*) 10,396. (*e*) 208,324. (*f*) 67,253. (*g*) 17,484. (*h*) 4.

MULTIPLICATION.

43. To **multiply** a number is to *add* it to itself a certain number of times.

44. **Multiplication** is the process of multiplying one number by another.

The *number* thus added to itself, or the number to be multiplied, is called the **multiplicand.**

The *number* which shows how many times the *multiplicand* is to be taken, or the *number* by which we *multiply*, is called the **multiplier.**

The result obtained by multiplying is called the **product.**

45. The sign of multiplication is $\times$. It is read *times* or *multiplied by*. Thus, 9×6 is read 9 *times* 6, or 9 *multiplied by* 6.

46. It matters not in what order the numbers to be multiplied together are placed. Thus, 6×9 is the same as 9×6.

47. In the following table, the product of any two numbers (neither of which exceeds twelve) may be found:

TABLE 2.

1 times 1 is 1	2 times 1 are 2	3 times 1 are 3
1 times 2 are 2	2 times 2 are 4	3 times 2 are 6
1 times 3 are 3	2 times 3 are 6	3 times 3 are 9
1 times 4 are 4	2 times 4 are 8	3 times 4 are 12
1 times 5 are 5	2 times 5 are 10	3 times 5 are 15
1 times 6 are 6	2 times 6 are 12	3 times 6 are 18
1 times 7 are 7	2 times 7 are 14	3 times 7 are 21
1 times 8 are 8	2 times 8 are 16	3 times 8 are 24
1 times 9 are 9	2 times 9 are 18	3 times 9 are 27
1 times 10 are 10	2 times 10 are 20	3 times 10 are 30
1 times 11 are 11	2 times 11 are 22	3 times 11 are 33
1 times 12 are 12	2 times 12 are 24	3 times 12 are 36
4 times 1 are 4	5 times 1 are 5	6 times 1 are 6
4 times 2 are 8	5 times 2 are 10	6 times 2 are 12
4 times 3 are 12	5 times 3 are 15	6 times 3 are 18
4 times 4 are 16	5 times 4 are 20	6 times 4 are 24
4 times 5 are 20	5 times 5 are 25	6 times 5 are 30
4 times 6 are 24	5 times 6 are 30	6 times 6 are 36
4 times 7 are 28	5 times 7 are 35	6 times 7 are 42
4 times 8 are 32	5 times 8 are 40	6 times 8 are 48
4 times 9 are 36	5 times 9 are 45	6 times 9 are 54
4 times 10 are 40	5 times 10 are 50	6 times 10 are 60
4 times 11 are 44	5 times 11 are 55	6 times 11 are 66
4 times 12 are 48	5 times 12 are 60	6 times 12 are 72
7 times 1 are 7	8 times 1 are 8	9 times 1 are 9
7 times 2 are 14	8 times 2 are 16	9 times 2 are 18
7 times 3 are 21	8 times 3 are 24	9 times 3 are 27
7 times 4 are 28	8 times 4 are 32	9 times 4 are 36
7 times 5 are 35	8 times 5 are 40	9 times 5 are 45
7 times 6 are 42	8 times 6 are 48	9 times 6 are 54
7 times 7 are 49	8 times 7 are 56	9 times 7 are 63
7 times 8 are 56	8 times 8 are 64	9 times 8 are 72
7 times 9 are 63	8 times 9 are 72	9 times 9 are 81
7 times 10 are 70	8 times 10 are 80	9 times 10 are 90
7 times 11 are 77	8 times 11 are 88	9 times 11 are 99
7 times 12 are 84	8 times 12 are 96	9 times 12 are 108
10 times 1 are 10	11 times 1 are 11	12 times 1 are 12
10 times 2 are 20	11 times 2 are 22	12 times 2 are 24
10 times 3 are 30	11 times 3 are 33	12 times 3 are 36
10 times 4 are 40	11 times 4 are 44	12 times 4 are 48
10 times 5 are 50	11 times 5 are 55	12 times 5 are 60
10 times 6 are 60	11 times 6 are 66	12 times 6 are 72
10 times 7 are 70	11 times 7 are 77	12 times 7 are 84
10 times 8 are 80	11 times 8 are 88	12 times 8 are 96
10 times 9 are 90	11 times 9 are 99	12 times 9 are 108
10 times 10 are 100	11 times 10 are 110	12 times 10 are 120
10 times 11 are 110	11 times 11 are 121	12 times 11 are 132
10 times 12 are 120	11 times 12 are 132	12 times 12 are 144

This table should be carefully committed to memory.
Since 0 has no value, the product of 0 and any number is 0

48. To multiply a number by one figure only:

EXAMPLE.—Multiply 425 by 5.

SOLUTION.—

multiplicand	425
multiplier	5
product	2125 Ans.

EXPLANATION.—For convenience, the *multiplier* is generally written *under* the *right-hand figure* of the *multiplicand.* On looking in the multiplication table, we see that 5 × 5 are 25. *Multiplying* the *first figure* at the *right* of the *multiplicand,* or 5, by the *multiplier* 5, it is seen that 5 times 5 units are 25 units, or 2 tens and 5 units. Write the *5 units* in *units place* in the *product*, and *reserve* the 2 tens to *add* to the *product* of *tens.* Looking in the multiplication table again, we see that 5 × 2 are 10. *Multiplying* the *second figure* of the *multiplicand* by the *multiplier* 5, we see *that* 5 *times* 2 tens are 10 tens, *plus* the 2 tens *reserved*, are 12 tens, or 1 hundred plus 2 tens. Write the *2 tens* in tens place, and *reserve* the 1 hundred to *add* to the product of *hundreds.* Again, we see by the multiplication table that 5 × 4 are 20. *Multiplying* the *third* or *last figure* of the *multiplicand* by the *multiplier* 5, we see that 5 times 4 hundreds are 20 hundreds, *plus* the 1 hundred *reserved*, are 21 hundreds, or 2 thousands *plus* 1 hundred, which we write in *thousands* and *hundreds places*, respectively.

Hence, the *product* is 2,125.

This *result* is the same as adding 425 five times. Thus,

	425
	425
	425
	425
	425
sum	2125 Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

49. Find the product of

(*a*) 61,488 × 6.
(*b*) 12,375 × 5.
(*c*) 10,426 × 7.
(*d*) 10,835 × 8.

Ans. (*a*) 368,898. (*b*) 61,875. (*c*) 72,982. (*d*) 82,505.

(*e*) 98,876 × 4.
(*f*) 10,873 × 8.
(*g*) 71,543 × 9.
(*h*) 218,734 × 2.

Ans. (*e*) 393,504. (*f*) 86,984. (*g*) 643,887. (*h*) 437,468.

50. To multiply a number by two or more figures:

EXAMPLE.—Multiply 475 by 234.

SOLUTION.—

multiplicand	475
multiplier	234
	1900
	1425
	950
product	111150 Ans.

EXPLANATION.—For convenience, the *multiplier* is generally written *under* the *multiplicand*, placing units under units, tens under tens, etc.

We *cannot* multiply by 234 at one operation; we must, therefore, *multiply* by the *parts* and then *add* the **partial products.**

The parts by which we are to multiply are 4 units, 3 tens, and 2 hundreds. 4 times 475 = 1,900, the *first partial product;* 3 times 475 = 1,425, the *second partial product*, the *right-hand figure* of which is *written directly under* the *figure multiplied by*, or 3; 2 times 475 = 950, the *third partial product*, the *right-hand figure* of which is *written directly under* the *figure multiplied by*, or 2.

The sum of these *three partial products* is 111,150, which is the *entire product.*

51. Rule.—I. *Write the multiplier under the multiplicand, so that units are under units, tens under tens, etc.*

II. *Begin at the right and multiply each figure of the multiplicand by each successive figure of the multiplier, placing the right-hand figure of each partial product directly under the figure used as a multiplier.*

III. *The sum of the partial products will equal the required product.*

52. Proof.—*Review the work carefully, or multiply the multiplier by the multiplicand; if the results agree, the work is correct.*

53. When there is a *cipher* in the *multiplier*, multiply the entire multiplicand by it; since the result will be zero, place a cipher under the cipher in the multiplier. Thus,

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
0	2	15	708
×0	×0	× 0	× 0
0 Ans.	0 Ans.	0 Ans.	0 Ans.

(e)	(f)	(g)
3114	4008	31264
203	305	1002
9342	20040	62528
62280	120240	3126400
632142 Ans.	1222440 Ans.	31326528 Ans.

In examples (*e*), (*f*), and (*g*), we multiply by 0 as directed above; then multiply by the next figure of the multiplier and place the first figure of the product alongside the 0, as shown.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

54. Find the product of

(*a*)	3,842 × 26.	Ans. (*a*)	99,892.
(*b*)	3,716 × 45.	(*b*)	167,220.
(*c*)	1,817 × 124.	(*c*)	225,308.
(*d*)	675 × 38.	(*d*)	25,650.
(*e*)	1,875 × 33.	(*e*)	61,875.
(*f*)	4,836 × 47.	(*f*)	227,292.
(*g*)	5,682 × 543.	(*g*)	3,085,326
(*h*)	3,257 × 246.	(*h*)	801,222.
(*i*)	2,875 × 302.	(*i*)	868,250.
(*j*)	17,819 × 1,004.	(*j*)	17,890,276.
(*k*)	38,674 × 205.	(*k*)	7,928,170.
(*l*)	18,304 × 100.	(*l*)	1,830,400.
(*m*)	7,834 × 10.	(*m*)	78,340.
(*n*)	87,543 × 1,000.	(*n*)	87,543,000.
(*o*)	48,763 × 100.	(*o*)	4,876,300.

DIVISION.

55. Division is the process of finding how many times one number is contained in another of the same kind.

The number to be *divided* is called the **dividend.**

The number by which we *divide* is called the **divisor.**

The number which *shows* how many times the *divisor* is *contained* in the *dividend* is called the **quotient.**

56. The sign of division is $\div$. It is read *divided by.* $54 \div 9$ is read 54 *divided by* 9. Another way to write 54 *divided by* 9 is $\frac{54}{9}$. Thus, $54 \div 9 = 6$, or $\frac{54}{9} = 6$.

In both of these cases 54 is the *dividend* and 9 is the *divisor.*

Division is the *reverse* of **multiplication.**

57. To divide when the divisor consists of but one figure, proceed as in the following example:

EXAMPLE.—What is the quotient of $875 \div 7$?

SOLUTION.—

```
                 divisor dividend quotient
                 7)875(125  Ans.
                   7
                   17
                   14
                    35
                    35
remainder            0
```

EXPLANATION.—7 is contained in 8 *hundreds* 1 *hundred* times. Place the one as the first or left-hand figure of the quotient. Multiply the divisor 7 by the 1 *hundred* of the quotient, and place the product 7 *hundreds* under the 8 *hundreds* in the dividend, and subtract. Beside the remainder 1, bring down the next or *tens* figure of the quotient, in this case 7, making 17 *tens;* 7 is contained in 17, 2 times. Write the 2 as the second figure of the quotient. Multiply the divisor 7 by the 2 in the quotient, and subtract the product from 17. Beside the remainder 3, bring down the next or *units* figure of the dividend, in this case 5, making

35 *units*. 7 is contained in 35, 5 times, which is placed in the quotient. Multiplying the divisor by the last figure of the quotient, 5 times 7 = 35, which subtracted from 35, under which it is placed, leaves 0. Therefore, the quotient is 125. This method is called **long division.**

58. In **short division,** only the divisor, dividend, and quotient are written, the operations being performed mentally.

```
                  dividend
divisor   7 ) 8¹7²5
              -------
quotient    1 2 5  Ans.
```

The mental operation is as follows: 7 is contained in 8, once and one remainder; 1 placed before 7 makes 17; 7 is contained in 17, 2 times and 3 over; the 3 placed before 5 makes 35; 7 is contained in 35, 5 times. These partial quotients placed in order as they are found, make the entire quotient 125.

The small figures are placed in the example given to better illustrate the explanation; they are never written when actually performing division in this way.

59. If the *divisor* consists of *2 or more* figures, proceed as in the following example:

EXAMPLE.—Divide 2,702,826 by 63.

```
                divisor   dividend    quotient
SOLUTION.—        63 ) 2702826 ( 42902  Ans.
                       252
                       ---
                        182
                        126
                        ---
                         568
                         567
                         ---
                           126
                           126
                           ---
                             0
```

EXPLANATION.—As 63 is not contained in the first two figures, 27, we must use the first three figures, 270. Now, by trial, we must find how many times 63 is contained in 270;

6 is contained in the first two figures of 270, 4 times. Place the 4 as the first or left-hand figure in the quotient. Multiply the divisor 63 by 4, and subtract the product 252 from 270. The remainder is 18, beside which we write the next figure of the dividend, 2, making 182. Now, 6 is contained in the first two figures of 182, 3 times, but on multiplying 63 by 3, we see that the product 189 is too great, so we try 2 as the second figure of the quotient. Multiplying the divisor 63 by 2, and subtracting the product 126 from 182, the remainder is 56, beside which we bring down the next figure of the dividend, making 568; 6 is contained in 56 about 9 times. Multiply the divisor 63 by 9 and subtract the product 567 from 568. The remainder is 1, and bringing down the next figure of the dividend, 2, gives 12. As 12 is smaller than 63, we write 0 in the quotient and bring down the next figure, 6, making 126. 63 is contained in 126, 2 times, without a remainder. Therefore, 42,902 is the quotient.

60. Rule.—I. *Write the divisor at the left of the dividend, with a line between them.*

II. *Find how many times the divisor is contained in the lowest number of the left-hand figures of the dividend that will contain it, and write the result at the right of the dividend, with a line between, for the first figure of the quotient.*

III. *Multiply the divisor by this quotient; write the product under the partial dividend used, and subtract, annexing to the remainder the next figure of the dividend. Divide as before, and thus continue until all the figures of the dividend have been used.*

IV. *If any partial dividend will not contain the divisor, write a cipher in the quotient, annex the next figure of the dividend and proceed as before.*

V. *If there be a remainder at last, write it after the quotient, with the divisor underneath.*

61. Proof.—*Multiply the quotient by the divisor, and add the remainder, if there be any, to the product. The result will be the dividend.*

```
                    divisor dividend quotient
Thus,                 63)4235(67 14/63  Ans.
                         378
                          455
                          441
                           14
          remainder
Proof,    quotient        67
          divisor         63
                         201
                        402
                        4221
          remainder       14
          dividend      4235
```

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

62. Divide the following:

(*a*) 126,498 by 58.
(*b*) 3,207,594 by 767.
(*c*) 11,408,202 by 234.
(*d*) 2,100,315 by 581.
(*e*) 969,936 by 4,008.
(*f*) 7,481,888 by 1,021.
(*g*) 1,525,915 by 5,003.
(*h*) 1,646,301 by 381.

Ans. (*a*) 2,181. (*b*) 4,182. (*c*) 48,758. (*d*) 3,615. (*e*) 242. (*f*) 7,328. (*g*) 305. (*h*) 4,321.

CANCELATION.

63. Cancelation is the process of shortening operations in division by casting out equal factors from both dividend and divisor.

64. The **factors** of a number are *those numbers* which, when *multiplied* together, will *equal that number*. Thus, 5 and 3 are factors of 15, since $5 \times 3 = 15$. Likewise, 8 and 7 are the factors of 56, since $8 \times 7 = 56$.

65. A **prime number** is one which cannot be divided by any number except itself and 1. Thus, 2, 3, 11, 29, etc., are prime numbers.

66. A **prime factor** is any factor that is a prime number.

Any number that is not a prime is called a **composite** number, and may be produced by multiplying together its prime factors. Thus, 60 is a composite number, and is equal to the product of its prime factors, $2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 5$.

Numbers are said to be **prime to each other** when no two of them can be divided by any number except 1; the numbers themselves *may* be either prime or composite. Thus, the numbers 3, 5, and 11 are prime to each other, so also are 22, 25, and 21 — all composite numbers.

67. Canceling *equal factors* from *both dividend and divisor* does *not* change the *quotient.*

The *canceling* of a *factor* in *both dividend and divisor* is the *same* as *dividing them both* by the *same number*, which, by the principle of division, does not *change the quotient.*

Write the *numbers* which make the *dividend* above the *line*, and those which make the *divisor* below it.

68. EXAMPLE.—Divide $4 \times 45 \times 60$ by 9×24.

SOLUTION.—Placing the dividend over the divisor, and canceling

$$\frac{\overset{5}{\cancel{4}} \times \overset{10}{\cancel{45}} \times \cancel{60}}{\cancel{9} \times \underset{\underset{1}{\cancel{6}}}{\cancel{24}}} = \frac{50}{1} = 50. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXPLANATION.—The 4 in the dividend and 24 in the divisor are both divisible by 4, since 4 divided by 4 equals 1, and 24 divided by 4 equals 6. Cross off the four and write the 1 over it; also, cross off the 24 and write the 6 under it. Thus,

$$\frac{\overset{1}{\cancel{4}} \times 45 \times 60}{9 \times \underset{6}{\cancel{24}}}.$$

60 in the dividend and 6 in the divisor are divisible by 6, since 60 divided by 6 equals 10, and 6 divided by 6 equals 1. Cross off the 60 and write 10 over it; also, cross off the 6 and write 1 under it. Thus,

$$\frac{\overset{1}{\cancel{4}} \times 45 \times \overset{10}{\cancel{60}}}{9 \times \underset{\underset{1}{\cancel{6}}}{\cancel{24}}}.$$

Again, 45 in the dividend and 9 in the divisor are divisible by 9, since 45 divided by 9 equals 5, and 9 divided by 9 equals 1. Cross off the 45 and write the 5 over it; also, cross off the 9 and write the 1 under it. Thus,

$$\frac{\overset{1}{\cancel{4}} \times \overset{5}{\cancel{45}} \times \overset{10}{\cancel{80}}}{\underset{1}{\cancel{9}} \times \underset{1}{\cancel{24}}}.$$

Since there are no two remaining numbers (one in the dividend and one in the divisor) divisible by any number except 1, without a remainder, it is impossible to cancel further.

Multiply all the uncanceled numbers in the dividend together, and divide their product by the product of all the uncanceled numbers in the divisor. The result will be the quotient. The product of all the uncanceled numbers in the dividend equals $5 \times 1 \times 10 = 50$; the product of all the uncanceled numbers in the divisor equals $1 \times 1 = 1$.

$$\text{Hence, } \frac{\overset{1}{\cancel{4}} \times \overset{5}{\cancel{45}} \times \overset{10}{\cancel{80}}}{\underset{1}{\cancel{9}} \times \underset{1}{\cancel{24}}} = \frac{1 \times 5 \times 10}{1 \times 1} = 50. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

It is usual to omit the 1's when canceling them, instead of writing them as above.

69. Rule.—I. *Cancel the common factors from both the dividend and divisor.*

II. *Then divide the product of the remaining factors of the dividend by the product of the remaining factors of the divisor, and the result will be the quotient.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

70. Divide

(*a*) $14 \times 18 \times 16 \times 40$ by $7 \times 8 \times 6 \times 5 \times 3$.
(*b*) $8 \times 65 \times 50 \times 100 \times 60$ by $30 \times 60 \times 13 \times 10$.
(*c*) $8 \times 4 \times 3 \times 9 \times 11$ by $11 \times 9 \times 4 \times 3 \times 8$.
(*d*) $164 \times 321 \times 6 \times 7 \times 4$ by $82 \times 321 \times 7$.
(*e*) $50 \times 100 \times 200 \times 72$ by $1{,}000 \times 144 \times 100$.
(*f*) $48 \times 63 \times 55 \times 49$ by $7 \times 21 \times 11 \times 48$.
(*g*) $110 \times 150 \times 84 \times 32$ by $11 \times 15 \times 100 \times 64$.
(*h*) $115 \times 120 \times 400 \times 1{,}000$ by $23 \times 1{,}000 \times 60 \times 800$.

Ans. (*a*) 32. (*b*) 250. (*c*) 1. (*d*) 48. (*e*) 5. (*f*) 105. (*g*) 42. (*h*) 5.

ARITHMETIC.

(SECTION 2.)

FRACTIONS.

71. A **fraction** is one or more equal parts of a unit: *One-half*, *one-third*, *two-fifths* are fractions.

72. *Two* numbers are required to express a fraction; one is called the *numerator*, and the other the *denominator*.

73. The numerator is placed above the denominator, with a line between them; as, $\frac{2}{3}$. 3 is the **denominator,** and shows into how many *equal parts* the *unit* or *one* is divided. The **numerator** 2 shows how many of these equal parts are taken or considered. The denominator also indicates the names of the parts.

$\frac{1}{2}$ is read one-half; $\frac{3}{4}$ is read three-fourths; $\frac{3}{8}$ is read three-eighths; $\frac{5}{16}$ is read five-sixteenths; $\frac{29}{47}$ is read twenty-nine-forty-sevenths.

74. In the expression "$\frac{3}{4}$ of an apple," the denominator 4 shows that the apple is to be (or has been) cut into 4 *equal parts*, and the numerator 3 shows that *three of these parts*, or *fourths*, are taken or considered.

If each of the parts, or fourths, of the apple were cut in *two equal pieces*, there would then be twice as many pieces as before, or $4 \times 2 = 8$ pieces in all; one of these pieces would be called one-eighth, and would be expressed in figures as $\frac{1}{8}$. Three of these pieces would be called three-eighths, and written $\frac{3}{8}$. It is evident that the *larger the denominator*, the greater is the number of parts into which anything is divided and the less the value of the fraction for the same number of parts taken. In other words, $\frac{7}{9}$, for example, is smaller than $\frac{7}{8}$, because if an object be divided into 9 parts, the parts are smaller than if the same object had been divided into 8 parts; and, since $\frac{1}{9}$ is smaller than $\frac{1}{8}$,

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it is clear that 7 one-ninths is a smaller amount than 7 one-eighths. Hence, also, $\frac{3}{8}$ is less than $\frac{3}{4}$.

75. The **value** of a fraction is the *numerator* divided by the *denominator;* as, $\frac{4}{2} = 2$, $\frac{6}{2} = 3$.

76. The line between the *numerator* and *denominator* means *divided by*, or $\div$.

$\frac{3}{4}$ is equivalent to $3 \div 4$.
$\frac{5}{8}$ is equivalent to $5 \div 8$.

77. The *numerator* and *denominator* of a fraction, when considered together, are called the **terms** of a fraction.

78. The *value* of a fraction whose *numerator* and *denominator* are equal is 1.

$\frac{4}{4}$, or four-fourths, $= 1$.
$\frac{8}{8}$, or eight-eighths, $= 1$.
$\frac{64}{64}$, or sixty-four-sixty-fourths, $= 1$.

79. A **proper fraction** is a fraction whose *numerator* is *less* than its *denominator*. Its *value* is *less* than 1; as, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{5}{8}$, $\frac{1}{16}$.

80. An **improper fraction** is a fraction whose *numerator equals* or is *greater than* the *denominator*. Its *value* is *one* or *more* than *one;* as, $\frac{4}{4}$, $\frac{9}{8}$, $\frac{48}{32}$.

81. A **mixed number** is a *whole* number and a *fraction* united. $4\frac{2}{3}$ is a mixed number, and is equivalent to $4 + \frac{2}{3}$. It is read *four and two-thirds.*

REDUCTION OF FRACTIONS.

82. **Reduction of fractions** is the process of changing their form without changing their *value.*

83. A *fraction* is reduced to *higher terms* by *multiplying both terms* of the *fraction* by the *same number.* Thus, $\frac{3}{4}$ is reduced to $\frac{6}{8}$ by multiplying both terms by 2.

$$\frac{3 \times 2}{4 \times 2} = \frac{6}{8}.$$

The *value* is not changed, since $\frac{3}{4} = \frac{6}{8}$. For, suppose that an object, say an apple, is divided into 8 equal parts. If

these parts be arranged into 4 piles, each containing 2 parts, it is evident that each pile will be composed of the same amount of the entire apple as would have been the case had the apple been originally cut into 4 equal parts. Now, if one of these piles (containing 2 parts) be removed, there will be 3 piles left, each containing 2 equal parts, or 6 equal parts in all, i. e., six-eighths. But, since one pile, or one quarter, was removed, there are three-quarters left. Hence, $\frac{3}{4} = \frac{6}{8}$. The same course of reasoning may be applied to any similar case. Therefore, multiplying both terms of a fraction by the same number does not alter its value.

84. To reduce a fraction to an equal fraction having a given denominator:

EXAMPLE.—Reduce $\frac{7}{8}$ to an equal fraction having 96 for a denominator.

SOLUTION.—Both the numerator and the denominator must be multiplied by the same number in order not to change the value of the fraction. The denominator must be multiplied by some number which will, in this case, make the product 96; this number is evidently $96 \div 8 = 12$, since $8 \times 12 = 96$. Hence, $\frac{7 \times 12}{8 \times 12} = \frac{84}{96}$. Ans.

85. Rule.—*Divide the given denominator by the denominator of the given fraction, and multiply both terms of the fraction by the result.*

EXAMPLE.—Reduce $\frac{3}{4}$ to 100ths.

SOLUTION.— $100 \div 4 = 25$; hence, $\frac{3 \times 25}{4 \times 25} = \frac{75}{100}$. Ans.

86. A *fraction* is reduced to *lower terms* by *dividing both terms* by the *same number*. Thus, $\frac{8}{10}$ is reduced to $\frac{4}{5}$ by dividing both terms by 2.

$$\frac{8 \div 2}{10 \div 2} = \frac{4}{5}.$$

That $\frac{8}{10} = \frac{4}{5}$ is readily seen from the explanation given in Art. **83**; for, multiplying both terms of the fraction $\frac{4}{5}$ by 2, $\frac{4 \times 2}{5 \times 2} = \frac{8}{10}$, and, if $\frac{4}{5} = \frac{8}{10}$, $\frac{8}{10}$ must equal $\frac{4}{5}$. Hence, dividing both terms of a fraction by the same number does not alter its value.

87. A *fraction* is reduced to *lowest terms* when its *numerator and denominator* cannot both be *divided* by the *same*

number without a remainder; as, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{3}{5}$, $\frac{11}{24}$, $\frac{3}{15}$. In other words, the numerator and denominator are prime to each other.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

88. Reduce the following:

(*a*) $\frac{7}{16}$ to 128ths.
(*b*) $\frac{24}{132}$ to its lowest terms.
(*c*) $\frac{64}{100}$ to its lowest terms.
(*d*) $\frac{5}{7}$ to 49ths.
(*e*) $\frac{13}{16}$ to 10,000ths.

Ans. (*a*) $\frac{56}{128}$. (*b*) $\frac{2}{11}$. (*c*) $\frac{8}{15}$. (*d*) $\frac{35}{49}$. (*e*) $\frac{8125}{10000}$.

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89. To reduce a whole number or mixed number to an improper fraction:

EXAMPLE.—How many *fourths* in 5?

SOLUTION.—Since there are 4 *fourths* in 1 ($\frac{4}{4} = 1$), in 5 there will be 5×4 fourths, or 20 fourths; i. e., $5 \times \frac{4}{4} = \frac{20}{4}$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Reduce $8\frac{3}{4}$ to an improper fraction.

SOLUTION.—$8 \times \frac{4}{4} = \frac{32}{4}$. $\frac{32}{4} + \frac{3}{4} = \frac{35}{4}$. Ans.

90. Rule.—*Multiply the whole number by the denominator of the fraction, add the numerator to the product, and place the denominator under the result. If it is desired to reduce a whole number to a fraction, multiply the whole number by the denominator of the given fraction, and write the result over the denominator.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

91. Reduce to improper fractions:

(*a*) $4\frac{4}{9}$.
(*b*) $5\frac{1}{9}$.
(*c*) $10\frac{2}{10}$.
(*d*) $37\frac{3}{4}$.
(*e*) $50\frac{4}{9}$.
(*f*) Reduce 7 to a fraction whose denominator is 16.

Ans. (*a*) $\frac{40}{9}$. (*b*) $\frac{46}{9}$. (*c*) $\frac{102}{10}$. (*d*) $\frac{151}{4}$. (*e*) $\frac{454}{9}$. (*f*) $\frac{112}{16}$.

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92. To reduce an improper fraction to a whole or mixed number:

EXAMPLE.—Reduce $\frac{21}{4}$ to a mixed number.

SOLUTION.—4 is contained in 21, 5 times and 1 remaining (see Art. 75); as this is also divided by 4, its value is $\frac{1}{4}$. Therefore, $5 + \frac{1}{4}$, or $5\frac{1}{4}$, is the number. Ans.

93. Rule.—*Divide the numerator by the denominator, the quotient will be the whole number; the remainder, if there be any, will be the numerator of the fractional part of which the denominator is the same as the denominator of the improper fraction.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

94. Reduce to whole or mixed numbers:

(*a*) $\frac{145}{6}$. (*b*) $\frac{185}{3}$. (*c*) $\frac{701}{6}$. (*d*) $\frac{142}{3}$. (*e*) $\frac{76}{19}$. (*f*) $\frac{185}{36}$.

Ans. (*a*) $24\frac{1}{6}$. (*b*) $61\frac{2}{3}$. (*c*) $116\frac{5}{6}$. (*d*) $49\frac{2}{3}$. (*e*) 4. (*f*) 5.

95. A **common denominator** of *two* or *more fractions* is a number which will contain (i. e., which may be divided by) all of the *denominators* of the *fractions* without a remainder. The **least common denominator** is the least number that will contain all of the denominators of the fractions without a remainder.

96. To find the least common denominator:

EXAMPLE.—Find the least common denominator of $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{9}$, and $\frac{1}{16}$.

SOLUTION.—We first place the denominators in a row, separated by commas.

2)	4,	3,	9,	16
2)	2,	3,	9,	8
3)	1,	3,	9,	4
	1,	1,	3,	4

$2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 3 \times 4 = 144$, the least common denominator. Ans.

EXPLANATION.—Divide the numbers by some prime number that will divide at least two of them without a remainder (if possible), bringing down to the row below those denominators which will not contain the divisor without a remainder. Dividing each of the numbers by 2, the second row becomes 2, 3, 9, 8, since 2 will not divide 3 and 9 without a remainder. Dividing again by 2, the result is 1, 3, 9, 4.

Dividing the third row by 3, the result is 1, 1, 3, 4. Since the remaining numbers are prime to each other, we cease dividing further. The product of all the divisors and of the numbers prime to each other, is $2\times2\times3\times3\times4=144$, which is the required least common denominator.

97. EXAMPLE.—Find the least common denominator of $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{5}{12}$, $\frac{7}{18}$.

SOLUTION.—

$$\begin{array}{r|rrr} 3 & 9, & 12, & 18 \\ \hline 3 & 3, & 4, & 6 \\ \hline 2 & 1, & 4, & 2 \\ \hline & 1, & 2, & 1 \end{array}$$

$3\times3\times2\times2=36$. Ans.

98. To reduce two or more fractions to fractions having a common denominator:

EXAMPLE.—Reduce $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, and $\frac{1}{2}$ to fractions having a common denominator.

SOLUTION.—The common denominator is any number which will contain 3, 4, and 2. The *least* common denominator is 12, because it is the smallest number which can be divided by 3, 4, and 2 without a remainder.

$\frac{2}{3}=\frac{8}{12}$, $\frac{3}{4}=\frac{9}{12}$, $\frac{1}{2}=\frac{6}{12}$.

Reducing $\frac{2}{3}$ (see Art. **84**), 3 is contained in 12, 4 times. By multiplying both numerator and denominator of $\frac{2}{3}$ by 4, we find

$\frac{2\times4}{3\times4}=\frac{8}{12}$. In the same way we find $\frac{3}{4}=\frac{9}{12}$ and $\frac{1}{2}=\frac{6}{12}$.

99. Rule.—*Divide the common denominator by the denominator of the given fraction, and multiply both terms of the fraction by the quotient.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

100. Reduce to fractions having a common denominator:

(*a*) $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{5}{8}$, $\frac{7}{8}$.
(*b*) $\frac{5}{16}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{7}{32}$.
(*c*) $\frac{7}{8}$, $\frac{7}{88}$, $\frac{10}{11}$.
(*d*) $\frac{3}{8}$, $\frac{5}{8}$, $\frac{11}{40}$.
(*e*) $\frac{4}{10}$, $\frac{6}{40}$, $\frac{9}{20}$.
(*f*) $\frac{7}{15}$, $\frac{17}{30}$, $\frac{21}{30}$.

Ans. (*a*) $\frac{6}{8}$, $\frac{5}{8}$, $\frac{7}{8}$.
(*b*) $\frac{6}{32}$, $\frac{24}{32}$, $\frac{7}{32}$.
(*c*) $\frac{77}{88}$, $\frac{7}{88}$, $\frac{80}{88}$.
(*d*) $\frac{24}{40}$, $\frac{25}{40}$, $\frac{11}{40}$.
(*e*) $\frac{16}{40}$, $\frac{6}{40}$, $\frac{18}{40}$.
(*f*) $\frac{14}{30}$, $\frac{17}{30}$, $\frac{21}{30}$.

ADDITION OF FRACTIONS.

101. *Fractions cannot be added unless they have a common denominator.* We cannot add $\frac{3}{4}$ to $\frac{7}{8}$ as they now stand, since the denominators represent parts of different sizes. Fourths cannot be added to eighths.

Suppose we divide an apple into 4 equal parts, and then divide 2 of these parts into two equal parts. It is evident that we shall have 2 one-fourths and 4 one-eighths. Now, if we add these parts, the result is $2 + 4 = 6$ something. But what is this something? It is not fourths, for six fourths are $1\frac{1}{2}$, and we had only 1 apple to begin with; neither is it eighths, for six eighths are $\frac{3}{4}$, which is less than 1 apple. By reducing the quarters to eighths, we have $\frac{2}{4} = \frac{4}{8}$, and adding the other 4 eighths, $4 + 4 = 8$ eighths. This result is correct, since $\frac{8}{8} = 1$. Or, we can, in this case, reduce the eighths to quarters. Thus, $\frac{4}{8} = \frac{2}{4}$; whence, adding $2 + 2 = 4$ quarters, a correct result since $\frac{4}{4} = 1$.

Before adding, fractions should be reduced to a common denominator, preferably the *least* common denominator.

102. EXAMPLE.—Find the sum of $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, and $\frac{5}{8}$.

SOLUTION.—The *least common denominator*, or the *least number* which will contain all the *denominators*, is 8.

$$\tfrac{1}{2} = \tfrac{4}{8},\ \tfrac{3}{4} = \tfrac{6}{8},\ \tfrac{5}{8} = \tfrac{5}{8}.$$

EXPLANATION.—As the *denominator* tells or indicates the names of the *parts*, the *numerators* only are added in order to obtain the total number of *parts* indicated by the *denominator*. Thus, 4 one-eighths plus 6 one-eighths plus 5 one-eighths =

$$\tfrac{4}{8} + \tfrac{6}{8} + \tfrac{5}{8} = \tfrac{4+6+5}{8} = \tfrac{15}{8} = 1\tfrac{7}{8}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

103. EXAMPLE.—What is the sum of $12\frac{3}{4}$, $14\frac{5}{8}$, and $7\frac{5}{16}$?

SOLUTION.—The least common denominator in this case is 16.

$$\begin{array}{rl} 12\tfrac{3}{4} = & 12\tfrac{12}{16} \\ 14\tfrac{5}{8} = & 14\tfrac{10}{16} \\ 7\tfrac{5}{16} = & 7\tfrac{5}{16} \\ \hline \textit{sum} = & 33 + \tfrac{27}{16} = 33 + 1\tfrac{11}{16} = 34\tfrac{11}{16}. \quad \text{Ans.} \end{array}$$

The sum of the fractions $= \frac{11}{16}$ or $1\frac{11}{16}$, which added to the sum of the whole numbers $= 34\frac{11}{16}$.

EXAMPLE.—What is the sum of 17, $13\frac{3}{16}$, $\frac{2}{32}$, and $8\frac{1}{4}$?

SOLUTION.—The least common denominator is 32. $13\frac{3}{16} = 13\frac{6}{32}$, $8\frac{1}{4} = 8\frac{8}{32}$.

$$\begin{array}{rl} & 17 \\ & 13\frac{6}{32} \\ & \frac{2}{32} \\ & 8\frac{8}{32} \\ \hline \textit{sum} & 38\frac{16}{32}. \quad \text{Ans.} \end{array}$$

104. **Rule I.**—*Reduce the given fractions to fractions having the least common denominator, and write the sum of the numerators over the common denominator.*

II. *When there are mixed numbers and whole numbers, add the fractions first, and if their sum is an improper fraction, reduce it to a mixed number, and add the whole number with the other whole numbers.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

105. Find the sum of

(*a*) $\frac{4}{5}$, $\frac{7}{12}$, $\frac{5}{6}$.
(*b*) $\frac{3}{5}$, $\frac{5}{15}$, $\frac{24}{45}$.
(*c*) $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{5}$, $\frac{5}{15}$.
(*d*) $\frac{5}{6}$, $\frac{11}{12}$, $\frac{13}{18}$.
(*e*) $\frac{10}{11}$, $\frac{6}{33}$, $\frac{33}{66}$.
(*f*) $\frac{33}{45}$, $\frac{11}{15}$, $\frac{14}{45}$.
(*g*) $\frac{4}{11}$, $\frac{7}{33}$, $\frac{14}{33}$.
(*h*) $\frac{3}{7}$, $\frac{14}{21}$, $\frac{3}{7}$.

Ans. (*a*) $1\frac{7}{12}$. (*b*) $1\frac{3}{15}$. (*c*) $1\frac{3}{15}$. (*d*) $1\frac{11}{12}$. (*e*) $1\frac{33}{66}$. (*f*) $1\frac{5}{9}$. (*g*) $1\frac{7}{33}$. (*h*) 1.

SUBTRACTION OF FRACTIONS.

106. Fractions cannot be *subtracted* without first reducing them to a *common denominator*. This can be shown in the same manner as in the case of addition of fractions.

EXAMPLE.—Subtract $\frac{3}{8}$ from $\frac{13}{16}$.

SOLUTION.—The common denominator is 16.

$$\frac{3}{8} = \frac{6}{16}. \quad \frac{13}{16} - \frac{6}{16} = \frac{13-6}{16} = \frac{7}{16}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

107. EXAMPLE.—From 7 take $\frac{5}{8}$.

SOLUTION.— $1 = \frac{8}{8}$; therefore, since $7 = 6 + 1$, $7 = 6 + \frac{8}{8} = 6\frac{8}{8}$, or $6\frac{8}{8} - \frac{5}{8} = 6\frac{3}{8}$. Ans.

108. EXAMPLE.—What is the difference between $17\frac{9}{16}$ and $9\frac{15}{32}$?

SOLUTION.—The common denominator of the fractions is 32. $17\frac{9}{16} = 17\frac{18}{32}$.

minuend	$17\frac{18}{32}$
subtrahend	$9\frac{15}{32}$
difference	$8\frac{3}{32}$ Ans.

109. EXAMPLE.—From $9\frac{1}{4}$ take $4\frac{7}{16}$.

SOLUTION.—The common denominator of the fractions is 16. $9\frac{1}{4} = 9\frac{4}{16}$.

minuend	$9\frac{4}{16}$ or	$8\frac{20}{16}$
subtrahend	$4\frac{7}{16}$	$4\frac{7}{16}$
difference	$4\frac{13}{16}$	$4\frac{13}{16}$ Ans.

EXPLANATION.—As the *fraction* in the *subtrahend* is greater than the fraction in the *minuend*, it *cannot* be subtracted; therefore, *borrow* 1, or $\frac{16}{16}$, from the 9 in the *minuend* and *add* it to the $\frac{4}{16}$; $\frac{4}{16} + \frac{16}{16} = \frac{20}{16}$. $\frac{7}{16}$ from $\frac{20}{16} = \frac{13}{16}$. Since 1 was *borrowed* from 9, 8 *remains;* 4 from 8 = 4; $4 + \frac{13}{16} = 4\frac{13}{16}$.

110. EXAMPLE.—From 9 take $8\frac{3}{16}$.

SOLUTION.—

minuend	9 or	$8\frac{16}{16}$
subtrahend	$8\frac{3}{16}$	$8\frac{3}{16}$
difference	$\frac{13}{16}$	$\frac{13}{16}$ Ans.

EXPLANATION.—As there is no *fraction* in the *minuend* from which to take the *fraction* in the *subtrahend*, *borrow* 1, or $\frac{16}{16}$, from 9. $\frac{3}{16}$ from $\frac{16}{16} = \frac{13}{16}$. Since 1 was *borrowed* from 9, only 8 is left. 8 from 8 = 0.

111. Rule I.—*Reduce the fractions to fractions having a common denominator. Subtract one numerator from the other and place the remainder over the common denominator.*

II. *When there are mixed numbers, subtract the fractions and whole numbers separately, and place the remainders side by side.*

III. *When the fraction in the subtrahend is greater than the fraction in the minuend, borrow 1 from the whole number in the minuend and add it to the fraction in the minuend, from which subtract the fraction in the subtrahend.*

IV. *When the minuend is a whole number, borrow 1; reduce it to a fraction whose denominator is the same as the denominator of the fraction in the subtrahend, and place it over that fraction for subtraction.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

112. Subtract

(*a*) $\frac{10}{24}$ from $\frac{11}{12}$.
(*b*) $\frac{7}{14}$ from $\frac{17}{28}$.
(*c*) $\frac{4}{30}$ from $\frac{5}{10}$.
(*d*) $\frac{16}{35}$ from $\frac{46}{70}$.
(*e*) $\frac{16}{18}$ from $\frac{57}{48}$.
(*f*) $13\frac{1}{2}$ from $30\frac{1}{2}$.
(*g*) $12\frac{1}{8}$ from 27.
(*h*) $5\frac{1}{4}$ from 30.

Ans. (*a*) $\frac{1}{2}$. (*b*) $\frac{3}{28}$. (*c*) $\frac{11}{30}$. (*d*) $\frac{3}{14}$. (*e*) $\frac{1}{4}$. (*f*) $17\frac{1}{4}$. (*g*) $14\frac{7}{8}$. (*h*) $24\frac{3}{4}$.

MULTIPLICATION OF FRACTIONS.

113. In *multiplication* of fractions it is not necessary to *reduce* the *fractions* to fractions having a *common denominator*.

114. Multiplying the *numerator* or *dividing* the *denominator multiplies* the fraction.

EXAMPLE.—Multiply $\frac{3}{4}$ by 4.

SOLUTION.— $\frac{3}{4} \times 4 = \frac{3 \times 4}{4} = \frac{12}{4} = 3.$ Ans.

Or $\frac{3}{4} \times 4 = \frac{3}{4 \div 4} = \frac{3}{1} = 3.$ Ans.

The word "of" in multiplication of fractions means the same as $\times$, or times. Thus,

$$\frac{3}{4} \text{ of } 4 = \frac{3}{4} \times 4 = 3.$$
$$\frac{1}{8} \text{ of } \frac{5}{16} = \frac{1}{8} \times \frac{5}{16} = \frac{5}{128}.$$

EXAMPLE.—Multiply $\frac{3}{8}$ by 2.

SOLUTION.— $2 \times \frac{3}{8} = \frac{3 \times 2}{8} = \frac{6}{8} = \frac{3}{4}.$ Ans.

Or $2 \times \frac{3}{8} = \frac{3}{8 \div 2} = \frac{3}{4}.$ Ans.

115. EXAMPLE.—What is the product of $\frac{4}{16}$ and $\frac{7}{8}$?

SOLUTION.— $\frac{4}{16} \times \frac{7}{8} = \frac{4 \times 7}{16 \times 8} = \frac{28}{128} = \frac{7}{32}.$ Ans.

or, by cancelation, $\frac{\cancel{4} \times 7}{\underset{4}{\cancel{16}} \times 8} = \frac{7}{4 \times 8} = \frac{7}{32}.$ Ans.

116. EXAMPLE.—What is $\frac{4}{8}$ of $\frac{3}{4}$ of $\frac{16}{32}$?

SOLUTION.— $\frac{\cancel{4} \times 3 \times \cancel{16}}{8 \times \cancel{4} \times \underset{2}{\cancel{32}}} = \frac{3}{8 \times 2} = \frac{3}{16}.$ Ans.

117. EXAMPLE.—What is the product of $9\frac{3}{4}$ and $5\frac{5}{8}$?

SOLUTION.—$9\frac{3}{4} = \frac{39}{4}$; $5\frac{5}{8} = \frac{45}{8}$.

$$\frac{39}{4} \times \frac{45}{8} = \frac{39 \times 45}{4 \times 8} = \frac{1755}{32} = 54\frac{27}{32}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

118. EXAMPLE.—Multiply $15\frac{7}{8}$ by 3.

SOLUTION.—

$$\begin{array}{r} 15\frac{7}{8} \\ 3 \\ \hline 47\frac{5}{8} \end{array} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{array}{r} 15\frac{7}{8} \\ 3 \\ \hline 45 + \frac{21}{8} = 45 + 2\frac{5}{8} = 47\frac{5}{8}. \end{array} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

119. Rule.—I. *Divide the product of the numerators by the product of the denominators. All factors common to the numerators and denominators should first be cast out by cancelation.*

II. *To multiply one mixed number by another, reduce them both to improper fractions.*

III. *To multiply a mixed number by a whole number, first multiply the fractional part by the multiplier, and if the product is an improper fraction, reduce it to a mixed number, and add the whole number part to the product of the multiplier and whole number.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

120. Find the product of

(*a*) $7 \times \frac{8}{15}$.	Ans.	(*a*) $1\frac{8}{15}$.
(*b*) $14 \times \frac{5}{16}$.		(*b*) $4\frac{3}{8}$.
(*c*) $\frac{11}{12} \times \frac{5}{14}$.		(*c*) $\frac{15}{56}$.
(*d*) $\frac{19}{27} \times 4$.		(*d*) $2\frac{19}{27}$.
(*e*) $\frac{18}{15} \times 7$.		(*e*) $7\frac{7}{15}$.
(*f*) $17\frac{18}{21} \times 7$.		(*f*) 125.
(*g*) $\frac{105}{224} \times 32$.		(*g*) 15.
(*h*) $\frac{15}{28} \times 14$.		(*h*) $7\frac{1}{2}$.

DIVISION OF FRACTIONS.

121. In *division* of fractions it is not necessary to *reduce* the *fractions* to fractions having a *common denominator*.

122. Dividing the *numerator* or *multiplying* the *denominator*, *divides* the fraction.

EXAMPLE.—Divide $\frac{6}{8}$ by 3.

SOLUTION.—When *dividing* the *numerator*, we have

$$\frac{6}{8} \div 3 = \frac{6 \div 3}{8} = \frac{2}{8} = \frac{1}{4}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

When *multiplying* the *denominator*, we have

$$\tfrac{6}{8} \div 3 = \frac{6}{8 \times 3} = \tfrac{6}{24} = \tfrac{1}{4}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—Divide $\frac{3}{16}$ by 2.

SOLUTION.— $$\tfrac{3}{16} \div 2 = \frac{3}{16 \times 2} = \tfrac{3}{32}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—Divide $\frac{14}{32}$ by 7.

SOLUTION.— $$\tfrac{14}{32} \div 7 = \frac{14 \div 7}{32} = \tfrac{2}{32} = \tfrac{1}{16}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

123. To **invert** a fraction is to *turn* it *upside down;* that is, make the *numerator* and *denominator change places.* Invert $\frac{3}{4}$ and it becomes $\frac{4}{3}$.

124. EXAMPLE.—Divide $\frac{9}{16}$ by $\frac{3}{16}$.

SOLUTION.—1. The fraction $\frac{3}{16}$ is contained in $\frac{9}{16}$, 3 times, for the *denominators* are the same, and one *numerator* is *contained* in the other 3 times. 2. If we now *invert* the *divisor* $\frac{3}{16}$, and *multiply*, the solution is

$$\frac{9}{16} \times \frac{16}{3} = \frac{\overset{3}{\cancel{9}} \times \cancel{16}}{\cancel{16} \times \cancel{3}} = 3. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

This brings the *same quotient* as in the first case.

125. EXAMPLE.—Divide $\frac{3}{8}$ by $\frac{1}{4}$.

SOLUTION.—We cannot divide $\frac{3}{8}$ by $\frac{1}{4}$, as in the first case above, for the *denominators* are *not* the same, therefore, we must solve as in the second case.

$$\tfrac{3}{8} \div \tfrac{1}{4} = \tfrac{3}{8} \times \tfrac{4}{1} = \frac{3 \times \cancel{4}}{\underset{2}{\cancel{8}} \times 1} = \frac{3}{2} \text{ or } 1\tfrac{1}{2}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

126. EXAMPLE.—Divide 5 by $\frac{10}{16}$.

SOLUTION.— $\frac{10}{16}$ inverted becomes $\frac{16}{10}$.

$$5 \times \frac{16}{10} = \frac{5 \times \overset{8}{\cancel{16}}}{\underset{2}{\cancel{10}}} = 8. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

127. EXAMPLE.—How many times is $3\frac{3}{4}$ contained in $7\frac{7}{16}$?

SOLUTION.— $3\frac{3}{4} = \frac{15}{4}$; $7\frac{7}{16} = \frac{119}{16}$.

$\frac{15}{4}$ inverted equals $\frac{4}{15}$.

$$\frac{119}{16} \times \frac{4}{15} = \frac{119 \times \cancel{4}}{\underset{4}{\cancel{16}} \times 15} = \frac{119}{60} = 1\tfrac{59}{60}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

128. **Rule.**—*Invert the divisor, and proceed as in multiplication.*

129. We have learned that a line placed between two numbers indicates that the number above the line is to be divided by the number below it. Thus, $\frac{18}{3}$ shows that 18 is to be divided by 3. This is also true if a fraction or a fractional expression be placed above or below a line.

$\frac{9}{\frac{3}{8}}$ means that 9 is to be divided by $\frac{3}{8}$; $\frac{3 \times 7}{\frac{8+4}{16}}$ means that 3×7 is to be divided by the value of $\frac{8+4}{16}$.

$\frac{\frac{1}{4}}{\frac{3}{8}}$ is the same as $\frac{1}{4} \div \frac{3}{8}$.

It will be noticed that there is a heavy line between the 9 and the $\frac{3}{8}$. This is necessary, since otherwise there would be nothing to show as to whether 9 was to be divided by $\frac{3}{8}$, or $\frac{9}{3}$ was to be divided by 8. Whenever a heavy line is used, as shown here, it indicates that *all above the line* is to be divided by *all below it.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

130. Divide

(*a*) 15 by $6\frac{3}{7}$.
(*b*) 30 by $\frac{5}{8}$.
(*c*) 172 by $\frac{4}{5}$.
(*d*) $\frac{14}{15}$ by $1\frac{7}{16}$.
(*e*) $\frac{102}{5}$ by $14\frac{2}{3}$.
(*f*) $\frac{142}{27}$ by $17\frac{1}{3}$.
(*g*) $\frac{14}{15}$ by $\frac{142}{73}$.
(*h*) $\frac{192}{15}$ by $72\frac{1}{3}$.

Ans. (*a*) $2\frac{1}{7}$. (*b*) 40. (*c*) 215. (*d*) $\frac{112}{207}$. (*e*) $1\frac{16}{55}$. (*f*) $\frac{71}{351}$. (*g*) $\frac{56}{146}$. (*h*) $\frac{64}{651}$.

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131. Whenever an expression like one of the three following is obtained, it may always be simplified by transposing the denominator from *above* to *below* the line, or from *below* to *above*, as the case may be, taking care however to indicate that the denominator when so transferred is a multiplier.

1. $\frac{\frac{3}{4}}{9} = \frac{3}{9 \times 4} = \frac{3}{36} = \frac{1}{12}$; for, regarding the fraction above the heavy line as the numerator of a fraction whose denominator is 9, $\frac{\frac{3}{4} \times 4}{9 \times 4} = \frac{3}{9 \times 4}$, as before.

2. $\frac{9}{\frac{3}{4}} = \frac{9 \times 4}{3} = 12$. The proof is the same as in the first case.

3. $\frac{\frac{5}{9}}{\frac{3}{4}} = \frac{5 \times 4}{3 \times 9} = \frac{20}{27}$; for, regarding $\frac{5}{9}$ as the numerator of a fraction whose denominator is $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{\frac{5}{9} \times 9}{\frac{3}{4} \times 9} = \frac{5}{\frac{3 \times 9}{4}}$; and $\frac{\frac{5}{3 \times 9} \times 4}{\frac{3 \times 9}{4} \times 4} = \frac{5 \times 4}{3 \times 9} = \frac{20}{27}$, as above.

This principle may be used to great advantage in cases like $\frac{\frac{1}{4} \times 310 \times \frac{27}{12} \times 72}{40 \times 4\frac{1}{2} \times 5\frac{1}{6}}$. Reducing the mixed numbers to fractions, the expression becomes $\frac{\frac{1}{4} \times 310 \times \frac{27}{12} \times 72}{40 \times \frac{9}{2} \times \frac{31}{6}}$. Now transferring the denominators of the fractions and canceling,

$$\frac{1 \times 310 \times 27 \times 72 \times 2 \times 6}{40 \times 9 \times 31 \times 4 \times 12} = \frac{1 \times \overset{10}{\cancel{310}} \times \overset{3}{\cancel{27}} \times \overset{3}{\cancel{72}} \times \cancel{2} \times \overset{3}{\cancel{6}}}{\underset{2}{\cancel{40}} \times \cancel{9} \times \cancel{31} \times \underset{2}{\cancel{4}} \times \cancel{12}} =$$

$$\frac{27}{2} = 13\tfrac{1}{2}.$$

Greater exactness in results can usually be obtained by using this principle than can be obtained by reducing the fractions to decimals. The principle, however, should not be employed *if a sign of addition or subtraction occurs either above or below the dividing line.*

ARITHMETIC.

(SECTION 3.)

DECIMALS.

REMARK.—A knowledge of decimals is of the utmost importance to all who are required to make calculations of any kind. The subject is easy to learn, and for this reason the student is somewhat inclined to study it too hastily, the result being that he afterwards has trouble that might have been entirely avoided had he given the text the proper attention in the beginning. Decimals are much easier to use than common fractions, which they replace; at the same time it is frequently more expedient to use common fractions in certain operations, and, hence, they cannot be wholly dispensed with. Particular attention should be paid to the rules for multiplication and division—especially to the locating of the decimal point—and to the operations of changing a common fraction to a decimal and vice versa.

132. Decimals are *tenth* fractions; that is, the parts of a unit are expressed on the scale of ten, as *tenths*, *hundredths*, *thousandths*, etc.

133. The *denominator*, which is always ten or a multiple of ten, as 10, 100, 1,000, etc., is *not* expressed as it would be in common fractions, by writing it under the *numerator*, with a line between them; as, $\frac{3}{10}$, $\frac{3}{100}$, $\frac{3}{1000}$. The denominator is always understood, the numerator consisting of the figures on the right of the *unit* figure. In order to distinguish

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the unit figure, a period (.), called the **decimal point,** is placed between the unit figure and the next figure on the right. The decimal point may be regarded in two ways: first, as indicating that the number on the right is the numerator of a fraction whose denominator is 10, 100, 1,000, etc.; and, second, as a part of the Arabic system of notation, each figure on the right being 10 times as large as the next succeeding figure, and 10 times as small as the next preceding figure, serving merely to point out the unit figure.

134. The *reading* of a *decimal number* depends upon the *number* of *decimal places* in it, or the *number* of *figures* to the *right* of the unit figure.

The first figure to the right of the unit figure expresses *tenths.*

The second figure to the right of the unit figure expresses *hundredths.*

The third figure to the right of the unit figure expresses *thousandths.*

The fourth figure to the right of the unit figure expresses *ten-thousandths.*

The fifth figure to the right of the unit figure expresses *hundred-thousandths.*

The sixth figure to the right of the unit figure expresses *millionths.*

Thus:

$.3 = \frac{3}{10} = 3$ tenths.

$.03 = \frac{3}{100} = 3$ hundredths.

$.003 = \frac{3}{1000} = 3$ thousandths.

$.0003 = \frac{3}{10000} = 3$ ten-thousandths.

$.00003 = \frac{3}{100000} = 3$ hundred-thousandths.

$.000003 = \frac{3}{1000000} = 3$ millionths.

The first figure to the right of the unit figure is called the *first* **decimal place;** the second figure, the *second decimal place*, etc. We see in the above that the *number of decimal places* in a decimal equals the *number of ciphers* to the *right* of the figure 1 in the *denominator* of its *equivalent fraction.* This fact kept in mind will be of much assistance in reading and writing decimals.

Whatever may be written to the *left* of a *decimal point* is a whole number. The decimal point affects only the figures to its *right*.

When a *whole number* and *decimal* are written together, the expression is a *mixed number*. Thus, 8.12 and 17.25 are mixed numbers.

The relation of decimals and whole numbers to each other is clearly shown by the following table :

hundreds of millions.	tens of millions.	millions.	hundreds of thousands.	tens of thousands.	thousands.	hundreds.	tens.	units.	decimal point.	tenths.	hundredths.	thousandths.	ten-thousandths.	hundred-thousandths.	millionths.	ten-millionths.	hundred-millionths.
9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	.	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

The figures to the *left* of the *decimal point* represent *whole numbers ;* those to the *right* are *decimals.*

In *both* the decimals and whole numbers, the *units* place is made the *starting point* of notation and numeration. The *decimals decrease* on the scale of *ten* to the *right*, and the *whole* numbers *increase* on the scale of *ten* to the *left*. The *first* figure to the *left* of units is *tens*, and the *first* figure to the *right* of units is *tenths*. The *second* figure to the *left* of units is *hundreds*, and the *second* figure to the *right* is *hundredths*. The *third* figure to the *left* is *thousands*, and the *third* to the *right* is *thousandths*, and so on ; the *whole* numbers on the *left* and the *decimals* on the *right*. The figures equally distant from units place correspond in name. The *decimals* have the ending *ths*, which distinguishes them from *whole* numbers. The following is the numeration of the number in the above table : Nine hundred eighty-seven million, six hundred fifty-four thousand, three hundred twenty-one, and twenty-three million, four hundred fifty-six thousand, seven hundred eightv-nine hundred millionths.

The *decimals* increase to the *left*, on the scale of *ten*, the same as *whole* numbers; for, beginning at, say, 4-*thousandths*, in the table, the next figure to the left is *hundredths*, which is ten times as great, and the next *tenths*, or ten times the *hundredths*, and so on through both decimals and whole numbers.

135. *Annexing* or *taking away* a *cipher* at the *right* of a *decimal* does *not* affect its value.

.5 is $\frac{5}{10}$; .50 is $\frac{50}{100}$, but $\frac{5}{10} = \frac{50}{100}$; therefore, .5 = .50.

136. *Inserting* a *cipher* between a *decimal* and the *decimal point divides* the decimal by 10.

$$.5 = \frac{5}{10};\ \frac{5}{10} \div 10 = \frac{5}{100} = .05.$$

137. *Taking away* a *cipher* from the *left* of a *decimal multiplies* the *decimal* by 10.

$$.05 = \frac{5}{100};\ \frac{5}{100} \times 10 = \frac{5}{10} = .5.$$

138. In some cases it is convenient to express a mixed decimal fraction in the form of a common (improper) fraction. To do so it is only necessary to write the entire number, omitting the decimal point, as the numerator of the fraction, and the denominator of the decimal part as the denominator of the fraction. Thus, $127.483 = \frac{127483}{1000}$; for, $127.483 = 127\frac{483}{1000} = \frac{127000+483}{1000} = \frac{127483}{1000}$.

ADDITION OF DECIMALS.

139. The only respect in which *addition* of *decimals* differs from *addition* of *whole numbers*, is that while the unit figures are placed under each other in both cases, the right-hand figures are not necessarily in line when adding decimals.

Whole numbers begin at units and increase on the scale of 10, to the left. Decimals decrease on the scale of 10, to the right. Whole numbers are to the left of the decimal point and decimals are to the right of it. In whole numbers the *right-hand* side of a column of figures to be added, must be in line, and in decimals, the *left-hand* side must be in line, which brings the decimal points directly under each other.

whole numbers	*decimals*	*mixed numbers*
342	.342	342.032
4234	.4234	4234.5
26	.26	26.6782
3	.03	3.06
sum 4605 Ans.	*sum* 1.0554 Ans.	*sum* 4606.2702 Ans.

140. A decimal, as .342, ought really to be expressed as 0.342, but it is quite customary to omit the cipher on the left of the decimal point, though many authors use it.

EXAMPLE.—What is the sum of 242, .36, 118.725, 1.005, 6, and 100.1?

SOLUTION.—

	242.
	.36
	118.725
	1.005
	6.
	100.1
sum	468.190 Ans.

141. Rule.—*Place the numbers to be added so that the decimal points will be directly under each other. Add as in whole numbers, and place the decimal point in the sum directly under the decimal points above.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

142. Find the sum of

(*a*) .2143, .105, 2.3042, and 1.1417.
(*b*) 783.5, 21.473, .2101, and .7816.
(*c*) 21.781, 138.72, 41.8738, .72, and 1.413.
(*d*) .3724, 104.15, 21.417, and 100.042.
(*e*) 200.172, 14.105, 12.1465, .705, and 7.2.
(*f*) 1,427.16, .244, .32, .032, and 10.0041.
(*g*) 2,473.1, 41.65, .7243, 104.067, and 21.073.
(*h*) 4,107.2, .00375, 21.716, 410.072, and .0345.

Ans. (*a*) 3.7652. (*b*) 805.9647. (*c*) 204.5078. (*d*) 225.9814. (*e*) 234.3285. (*f*) 1,437.7601. (*g*) 2,640.6143. (*h*) 4,539.02625.

SUBTRACTION OF DECIMALS.

143. For the same reason as in addition of decimals, the *left-hand* figures of *decimal numbers* are placed in line and the *decimal points* under each other.

EXAMPLE.—Subtract .132 from .3063.

SOLUTION.—

minuend	.3063
subtrahend	.132
difference	.1743 Ans.

144. EXAMPLE.—What is the difference between 7.895 and .725?

SOLUTION.—

minuend	7.895
subtrahend	.725
difference	7.170 or 7.17 Ans.

145. EXAMPLE.—Subtract .625 from 11.

SOLUTION.—

minuend	11.000
subtrahend	.625
difference	10.375 Ans.

146. Rule.—*Place the subtrahend under the minuend, so that the decimal points will be directly under each other. Subtract, as in whole numbers, and place the decimal point in the remainder, directly under the decimal points above.*

When the figures in the decimal part of the subtrahend extend beyond those in the minuend, place ciphers in the minuend above them, and subtract as before.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

147. From

(*a*) 407.385 take 235.0004.		(*a*) 172.3846.
(*b*) 22.718 take 1.7042.		(*b*) 21.0138.
(*c*) 1,368.17 take 13.6817.		(*c*) 1,354.4883.
(*d*) 70.00017 take 7.000017.	Ans.	(*d*) 63.000153.
(*e*) 630.630 take .6304.		(*e*) 629.9996.
(*f*) 421.73 take 217.162.		(*f*) 204.568.
(*g*) 1.000014 take .00001.		(*g*) 1.000004.
(*h*) .783652 take .542314.		(*h*) .241338.

MULTIPLICATION OF DECIMALS.

148. In multiplication of decimals, we do not place the decimal points directly under each other as in addition and subtraction. We pay no attention for the time being to the

decimal points. Place the multiplier under the multiplicand, so that the *right-hand* figure of the one is under the *right-hand* figure of the other, and proceed exactly as in multiplication of whole numbers. After multiplying, *count the number of decimal places in both multiplicand and multiplier, and point off the same number in the product.*

EXAMPLE.—Multiply .825 by 13.

SOLUTION.—

multiplicand	.825
multiplier	13
	2475
	825
product	10.725 Ans.

In this example there are three decimal places in the multiplicand and none in the multiplier; therefore, 3 decimal places are pointed off in the product.

149. EXAMPLE.—What is the product of 426 and the decimal .005?

SOLUTION.—

multiplicand	426
multiplier	.005
product	2.130 or 2.13 Ans.

In this example there are 3 decimal places in the multiplier and none in the multiplicand; therefore, 3 decimal places are pointed off in the product.

150. It is *not* necessary to multiply by the ciphers on the *left* of a *decimal;* they merely determine the number of decimal places. Ciphers to the *right* of a decimal should be removed, as they only make more figures to deal with, and do not change the value.

151. EXAMPLE.—Multiply 1.205 by 1.15.

SOLUTION.—

multiplicand	1.205
multiplier	1.15
	6025
	1205
	1205
product	1.38575 Ans.

In this example there are 3 decimal places in the multiplicand, and 2 in the multiplier; therefore, 3 + 2, or 5, decimal places must be pointed off in the product.

152. EXAMPLE.—Multiply .232 by .001.

SOLUTION.—

multiplicand	.232
multiplier	.001
product	.000232 Ans.

In this example we multiply the multiplicand by the digit in the multiplier, which makes 232 in the product, but since there are 3 decimal places in each, the multiplier and the multiplicand, we must prefix 3 ciphers to the 232, to make 3 + 3, or 6, decimal places in the product.

153. Rule.—*Place the multiplier under the multiplicand, disregarding the position of the decimal points. Multiply as in whole numbers, and in the product point off as many decimal places as there are decimal places in both multiplier and multiplicand, prefixing ciphers if necessary.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

154. Find the product of

(*a*) .000492 × 4.1418.	Ans.	(*a*) .0020377656.
(*b*) 4,003.2 × 1.2.		(*b*) 4,803.84.
(*c*) 78.6531 × 1.03.		(*c*) 81.012693.
(*d*) .3685 × .042.		(*d*) .015477.
(*e*) 178,352 × .01.		(*e*) 1,783.52.
(*f*) .00645 × .0045.		(*f*) .000002025.
(*g*) .714 × .00002.		(*g*) .00001428.
(*h*) .00004 × .008.		(*h*) .00000032.

DIVISION OF DECIMALS.

155. In division of decimals we pay *no* attention to the decimal point until *after* the division is performed. The *number of decimal places* in the *dividend must equal* (*be made to equal by annexing ciphers*) *the number of decimal places in the divisor.* Divide exactly as in whole numbers. *Subtract the number of decimal places in the divisor from the number of decimal places in the dividend, and point off as many decimal*

places in the quotient as there are units in the remainder thus found.

EXAMPLE.—Divide .625 by 25.

```
                    divisor dividend quotient
SOLUTION.—            25 ).625 ( .025  Ans.
                          50
                          ---
                          125
                          125
                          ---
                remainder   0
```

In this example there are no decimal places in the divisor, and 3 decimal places in the dividend; therefore, there are 3 minus 0, or 3, decimal places in the quotient. One cipher has to be prefixed to the 25, to make the 3 decimal places.

156. EXAMPLE.—Divide 6.035 by .05.

```
                    divisor dividend quotient
SOLUTION.—           .05 ) 6.035 ( 120.7  Ans.
                           5
                           --
                           10
                           10
                           --
                            35
                            35
                            --
                remainder    0
```

In this example we divide by 5, as if the cipher were not before it. There is one more decimal place in the dividend than in the divisor; therefore, one decimal place is pointed off in the quotient.

157. EXAMPLE.—Divide .125 by .005.

```
                    divisor dividend quotient
SOLUTION.—           .005 ).125 ( 25  Ans.
                           10
                           --
                            25
                            25
                            --
                remainder    0
```

In this example there are the same number of decimal places in the dividend as in the divisor; therefore, the quotient has no decimal places, and is a whole number.

158. EXAMPLE.—Divide 326 by .25.

SOLUTION.—

```
divisor  dividend  quotient
.25 ) 326.00 ( 1304  Ans.
      25
      ---
       76
       75
       ----
        100
        100
        ----
remainder  0
```

In this problem two ciphers were annexed to the dividend, to make the number of decimal places equal to the number in the divisor. The quotient is a whole number.

159. EXAMPLE.—Divide .0025 by 1.25.

SOLUTION.—

```
1.25 ) .00250 ( .002  Ans.
       250
       ---
remainder  0
```

EXPLANATION.—In this example we are to divide .0025 by 1.25. Consider the dividend as a whole number, or 25 (disregarding the two ciphers at its left, for the present); also, consider the divisor as a whole number, or 125. It is clearly evident that the dividend 25 will not contain the divisor 125; we must, therefore, annex one cipher to the 25, thus making the dividend 250. 125 is contained twice in 250, so we place the figure 2 in the quotient. In pointing off the decimal places in the quotient, it must be remembered that there were only four decimal places in the dividend; but one cipher was annexed, thereby making $4+1$, or 5, decimal places. Since there are 5 decimal places in the dividend and 2 decimal places in the divisor, we must point off $5-2$, or 3, decimal places in the quotient. In order to point off 3 decimal places, two ciphers must be prefixed to the figure 2, thereby making .002 the quotient. It is not necessary to consider the ciphers at the left of a decimal when dividing, except when determining the position of the decimal point in the quotient.

160. Rule.—I. *Place the divisor to the left of the dividend, and proceed as in division of whole numbers; in the*

quotient, point off as many decimal places as the number of decimal places in the dividend exceed those in the divisor, prefixing ciphers to the quotient, if necessary.

II. *If in dividing one number by another there be a remainder, the remainder can be placed over the divisor, as a fractional part of the quotient, but it is generally better to annex ciphers to the remainder, and continue dividing until there are 3 or 4 decimal places in the quotient, and then if there still be a remainder, terminate the quotient by the plus sign* (+), *which shows that it can be carried further.*

161. EXAMPLE.—What is the quotient of 199 divided by 15?

SOLUTION.—

```
          15)199(13 + 4/15  Ans.
             15
             ---
              49
              45
             ---
remainder      4
```

Or,

```
          15)199.000(13.266 +  Ans.
             15
             ---
              49
              45
             ----
               40
               80
              ----
              100
               90
              ----
               100
                90
               ---
remainder       10
```

$13\frac{4}{15} = 13.266 +$

$\frac{4}{15} = \ .266 +$

162. It frequently happens, as in the above example, that the division will never terminate. In such cases, decide to how many decimal places the division is to be carried, and carry the work one place further. If the last figure of the quotient thus obtained is 5 or a greater number, increase the preceding figure by 1, and write after it the minus sign (−), thus indicating that the quotient is not quite as large as indicated; if the figure thus obtained is less than 5, write the plus sign (+) after the quotient, thus indicating that

the number is slightly greater than as indicated. In the last example, had it been desired to obtain the answer correct to four decimal places, the work would have been carried to five places, obtaining 13.26666, and the answer would have been given as 13.2667—. This remark applies to any other calculation involving decimals, when it is desired to omit some of the figures in the decimal. Thus, if it is desired to retain three decimal places in the number .2471253, it would be expressed as .247 +; if it was desired to retain five decimal places, it would be expressed as .24713—. Both the + and — signs are frequently omitted; they are seldom used outside of Arithmetic, except in exact calculations, when it is desired to call particular attention to the fact that the result obtained is not *quite* exact.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

163. Divide

(*a*) 101.6688 by 2.36.		(*a*) 43.08.
(*b*) 187.12264 by 123.107.		(*b*) 1.52.
(*c*) .08 by .008.		(*c*) 10.
(*d*) .0003 by 3.75.	Ans.	(*d*) .00008.
(*e*) .0144 by .024.		(*e*) .6.
(*f*) .00375 by 1.25.		(*f*) .003.
(*g*) .004 by 400.		(*g*) .00001.
(*h*) .4 by .008.		(*h*) 50.

TO REDUCE A FRACTION TO A DECIMAL.

164. EXAMPLE.—$\frac{3}{4}$ equals what decimal?

SOLUTION.—

```
4 ) 3.00
    ----
    .75,  or 3/4 = .75.  Ans.
```

EXAMPLE.—What decimal is equivalent to $\frac{7}{8}$?

SOLUTION.—

```
8 ) 7.000 ( .875
    64
    --
     60
     56     or 7/8 = .875.  Ans.
     --
      40
      40
      --
       0
```

165. Rule.—*Annex ciphers to the numerator and divide by the denominator. Point off as many decimal places in the quotient as there are ciphers annexed.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

166. Reduce the following common fractions to decimals:

(*a*) $\frac{15}{32}$.		(*a*)	.46875.
(*b*) $\frac{7}{8}$.		(*b*)	.875.
(*c*) $\frac{21}{32}$.		(*c*)	.65625.
(*d*) $\frac{51}{64}$.	Ans.	(*d*)	.796875.
(*e*) $\frac{4}{25}$.		(*e*)	.16.
(*f*) $\frac{5}{8}$.		(*f*)	.625.
(*g*) $\frac{10}{200}$.		(*g*)	.05.
(*h*) $\frac{4}{1000}$.		(*h*)	.004.

---

167. To reduce inches to decimal parts of a foot:

EXAMPLE.—What decimal part of a foot is 9 inches?

SOLUTION.—Since there are 12 inches in one foot, 1 inch is $\frac{1}{12}$ of a foot, and 9 inches is $9 \times \frac{1}{12}$ or $\frac{9}{12}$ of a foot. This, reduced to a decimal by the above rule, shows what decimal part of a foot 9 inches is.

```
12 ) 9.0 0 ( .7 5 of a foot.  Ans.
     8 4
     ---
      6 0
      6 0
      ---
        0
```

168. Rule I.—*To reduce inches to decimal parts of a foot, divide the number of inches by 12.*

II. *Should the resulting decimal be an unending one and it is desired to terminate the division at some point, say, the fourth decimal place, carry the division one place further, and if the fifth figure is 5 or greater, increase the fourth figure by 1. Omit the signs + and —.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

169. Reduce to the decimal part of a foot:

(*a*) 3 in.		(*a*)	.25.
(*b*) $4\frac{1}{2}$ in.		(*b*)	.375.
(*c*) 5 in.	Ans.	(*c*)	.4167.
(*d*) $6\frac{5}{8}$ in.		(*d*)	.5521.
(*e*) 11 in.		(*e*)	.9167.

TO REDUCE A DECIMAL TO A FRACTION.

170. EXAMPLE.—Reduce .125 to a fraction.

SOLUTION.— $.125 = \frac{125}{1000} = \frac{5}{40} = \frac{1}{8}$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Reduce .875 to a fraction.

SOLUTION.— $.875 = \frac{875}{1000} = \frac{35}{40} = \frac{7}{8}$. Ans.

171. Rule.—*Under the figures of the decimal, place 1 with as many ciphers at its right as there are decimal places in the decimal, and reduce the resulting fraction to its lowest terms by dividing both numerator and denominator by the same number.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

172. Reduce the following to common fractions:

(*a*)	.125.	Ans. (*a*)	$\frac{1}{8}$.
(*b*)	.625.	(*b*)	$\frac{5}{8}$.
(*c*)	.3125.	(*c*)	$\frac{5}{16}$.
(*d*)	.04.	(*d*)	$\frac{1}{25}$.
(*e*)	.06.	(*e*)	$\frac{3}{50}$.
(*f*)	.75.	(*f*)	$\frac{3}{4}$.
(*g*)	.15625.	(*g*)	$\frac{5}{32}$.
(*h*)	.875.	(*h*)	$\frac{7}{8}$.

---

173. To express a decimal approximately as a fraction having a given denominator:

174. EXAMPLE.—Express .5827 in 64ths.

SOLUTION.— $.5827 \times \frac{64}{64} = \frac{37.2928}{64}$, say $\frac{37}{64}$.

Hence, $.5827 = \frac{37}{64}$, nearly. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Express .3917 in 12ths.

SOLUTION.— $.3917 \times \frac{12}{12} = \frac{4.7004}{12}$, say $\frac{5}{12}$.

Hence, $.3917 = \frac{5}{12}$, nearly. Ans.

175. Rule.—*Reduce 1 to a fraction having the given denominator. Multiply the given decimal by the fraction so obtained, and the result will be the fraction required.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

176. Express

(*a*)	.625 in 8ths.	Ans. (*a*)	$\frac{5}{8}$.
(*b*)	.3125 in 16ths.	(*b*)	$\frac{5}{16}$.
(*c*)	.15625 in 32ds.	(*c*)	$\frac{5}{32}$.
(*d*)	.77 in 64ths.	(*d*)	$\frac{49}{64}$.
(*e*)	.81 in 48ths.	(*e*)	$\frac{39}{48}$.
(*f*)	.923 in 96ths.	(*f*)	$\frac{89}{96}$.

177. The sign for dollars is \$. It is read dollars. \$25 is read 25 dollars.

Since there are 100 cents in a dollar, one cent is 1-one-hundredth of a dollar; the first two figures of a decimal part of a dollar represent *cents*. Since a mill is $\frac{1}{10}$ of a cent, or $\frac{1}{1000}$ of a dollar, the third figure represents mills.

Thus, \$25.16 is read twenty-five dollars and sixteen cents; \$25.168 is read twenty-five dollars, sixteen cents and eight mills.

178. The **vinculum**——, **parenthesis** ( ), **bracket** [ ], and **brace** { } are called **symbols of aggregation,** and are used to include numbers which are to be considered together; thus, $13 \times \overline{8 - 3}$, or $13 \times (8 - 3)$, shows that 3 is to be taken from 8 before multiplying by 13.

$$13 \times (8 - 3) = 13 \times 5 = 65. \quad \text{Ans.}$$
$$13 \times \overline{8 - 3} = 13 \times 5 = 65. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

When the vinculum or parenthesis is not used, we have

$$13 \times 8 - 3 = 104 - 3 = 101. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

179. In any series of numbers connected by the signs +, −, ×, and ÷, the operations indicated by the signs must be performed in order from left to right, *except* that no addition or subtraction may be performed if a sign of multiplication or division *follows* the number on the *right* of a sign of addition or subtraction, until the indicated multiplication or division has been performed. In all cases the sign of multiplication takes the precedence, the reason being that when two or more numbers or expressions are connected by the sign of multiplication, the numbers thus connected are regarded as factors of the product indicated, and not as separate numbers.

EXAMPLE.—What is the value of $4 \times 24 - 8 + 17$?

SOLUTION.—Performing the operations in order from left to right, $4 \times 24 = 96$; $96 - 8 = 88$; $88 + 17 = 105$. Ans.

180. EXAMPLE.—What is the value of the following expression: $1{,}296 \div 12 + 160 - 22 \times 3\frac{1}{2} = ?$

SOLUTION.—$1{,}296 \div 12 = 108$; $108 + 160 = 268$; here we cannot subtract 22 from 268 because the sign of multiplication *follows* 22; hence, multiplying 22 by $3\frac{1}{2}$, we get 77, and $268 - 77 = 191$. Ans.

Had the above expression been written $1{,}296 \div 12 + 160 - 22 \times 3\frac{1}{2} \div 7 + 25$, it would have been necessary to have divided $22 \times 3\frac{1}{2}$ by 7 before subtracting, and the final result would have been $22 \times 3\frac{1}{2} = 77$; $77 \div 7 = 11$; $268 - 11 = 257$; $257 + 25 = 282$. Ans. In other words, it is necessary to perform *all* of the multiplication or division included between the signs + and −, or − and +, before adding or subtracting. Also, had the expression been written $1{,}296 \div 12 + 160 - 24\frac{1}{2} \div 7 \times 3\frac{1}{2} + 25$, it would have been necessary to have multiplied $3\frac{1}{2}$ by 7 before dividing $24\frac{1}{2}$, since the sign of multiplication takes the precedence, and the final result would have been $3\frac{1}{2} \times 7 = 24\frac{1}{2}$; $24\frac{1}{2} \div 24\frac{1}{2} = 1$; $268 - 1 = 267$; $267 + 25 = 292$. Ans.

It likewise follows that if a succession of multiplication and division signs occurs, the indicated operations must not be performed in order, from left to right—the multiplication must be performed first. Thus, $24 \times 3 \div 4 \times 2 \div 9 \times 5 = \frac{1}{3}$. Ans. In order to obtain the same result that would be obtained by performing the indicated operations in order, from left to right, symbols of aggregation must be used. Thus, by using two vinculums, the last expression becomes $24 \times \overline{3 \div 4} \times \overline{2 \div 9} \times 5 = 20$, the same result that would be obtained by performing the indicated operations in order, from left to right.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

181. Find the values of the following expressions:

(*a*)	$(8 + 5 - 1) + 4$.	Ans.	(*a*)	3.
(*b*)	$5 \times 24 - 32$.		(*b*)	88.
(*c*)	$5 \times 24 \div 15$.		(*c*)	8.
(*d*)	$144 - 5 \times 24$.		(*d*)	24.
(*e*)	$(1{,}691 - 540 + 559) \div 3 \times 57$.		(*e*)	10.
(*f*)	$2{,}080 + 120 - 80 \times 4 - 1{,}670$.		(*f*)	210.
(*g*)	$\overline{(90 + 60 \div 25)} \times 5 - 29$.		(*g*)	1.
(*h*)	$\overline{90 + 60 \div 25} \times 5$.		(*h*)	1.2.

ARITHMETIC.

(SECTION 4.)

PERCENTAGE.

182. **Percentage** is the process of calculating by *hundredths.*

183. The *term* **per cent.** is an abbreviation of the Latin words *per centum*, which mean *by the hundred.* A certain per cent. of a number is the number of hundredths of that number which is indicated by the number of units in the per cent. Thus, 6 per cent. of 125 is $125 \times \frac{6}{100} = 7.5$; 25 per cent. of 80 is $80 \times \frac{25}{100} = 20$; 43 per cent. of 432 pounds is $432 \times \frac{43}{100} = 185.76$ pounds.

184. The **sign** of per cent. is %, and is read *per cent.* Thus, 6% is read *six per cent.;* 12½% is read *twelve and one-half per cent.*, etc.

When expressing the per cent. of a number to use in calculations, it is customary to express it decimally instead of fractionally. Thus, instead of expressing 6%, 25%, and 43% as $\frac{6}{100}$, $\frac{25}{100}$, and $\frac{43}{100}$, it is usual to express them as .06, .25, and .43.

The following table will show how any per cent. can be expressed either as a decimal or as a fraction:

Per Cent.	Decimal.	Fraction.	Per Cent.	Decimal.	Fraction.
1%.....	.01	$\frac{1}{100}$	150 %....	1.50	$\frac{150}{100}$ or $1\frac{1}{2}$
2%.....	.02	$\frac{2}{100}$ or $\frac{1}{50}$	500 %....	5.00	$\frac{500}{100}$ or 5
5%.....	.05	$\frac{5}{100}$ or $\frac{1}{20}$	¼%....	.0025	$\frac{\frac{1}{4}}{100}$ or $\frac{1}{400}$
10%.....	.10	$\frac{10}{100}$ or $\frac{1}{10}$	½%....	.005	$\frac{\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ or $\frac{1}{200}$
25%.....	.25	$\frac{25}{100}$ or $\frac{1}{4}$	1½%....	.015	$\frac{1\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ or $\frac{3}{200}$
50%.....	.50	$\frac{50}{100}$ or $\frac{1}{2}$	8⅓%....	.08⅓	$\frac{8\frac{1}{3}}{100}$ or $\frac{1}{12}$
75%.....	.75	$\frac{75}{100}$ or $\frac{3}{4}$	12½%....	.125	$\frac{12\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ or $\frac{1}{8}$
100%.....	1.00	$\frac{100}{100}$ or 1	16⅔%....	.16⅔	$\frac{16\frac{2}{3}}{100}$ or $\frac{1}{6}$
125%.....	1.25	$\frac{125}{100}$ or $1\frac{1}{4}$	62½%....	.625	$\frac{62\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ or $\frac{5}{8}$

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185. The names of the different elements used in percentage are: the *base*, the *rate per cent.*, the *percentage*, the *amount*, and the *difference*.

186. The **base** is the number on which the per cent. is computed.

187. The **rate** is the number of hundredths of the base to be taken.

188. The **percentage** is the part, or number of *hundredths*, of the base indicated by the rate; or, the percentage is the result obtained by multiplying the base by the rate.

Thus, when it is stated that 7% of \$25 is \$1.75, \$25 is the base, 7% is the rate, and \$1.75 is the percentage.

189. The **amount** is the sum of the base and percentage.

190. The **difference** is the remainder obtained by subtracting the percentage from the base.

Thus, if a man has \$180, and he earns 6% more, he will have, altogether, \$180 + \$180 × .06, or \$180 + \$10.80 = \$190.80. Here \$180 is the base; 6%, the rate; \$10.80, the percentage, and \$190.80, the *amount*.

Again, if an engine of 125 horsepower uses 16% of it in overcoming friction and other resistances, the amount left for obtaining useful work is 125 − 125 × .16 = 125 − 20 = 105 horsepower. Here 125 is the base; 16%, the rate; 20, the percentage, and 105, the *difference*.

191. From the foregoing it is evident that to find the percentage, the base must be multiplied by the rate. Hence, the following

Rule.—*To find the percentage, multiply the base by the rate expressed decimally.*

EXAMPLE.—Out of a lot of 300 bushels of apples, 76% were sold. How many bushels were sold?

SOLUTION.—76%, the rate, expressed decimally, is .76; the base is 300; hence, the number of bushels sold, or the percentage, is by the above rule,

$$300 \times .76 = 228 \text{ bushels. Ans.}$$

Expressing the rule as a

Formula, *percentage* = *base* × *rate*.

192. When the percentage and rate are given, the base may be found by dividing the percentage by the rate. For, suppose that 12 is 6%, or $\frac{6}{100}$, of some number; then, 1%, or $\frac{1}{100}$, of the number, is $12 \div 6$, or 2. Consequently, if $2 = 1\%$, or $\frac{1}{100}$, 100%, or $\frac{100}{100}$, $= 2 \times 100 = 200$. But, since the same result may be arrived at by dividing 12 by .06, for $12 \div .06 = 200$, it follows that

Rule.—*When the percentage and rate are given, to find the base, divide the percentage by the rate, expressed decimally.*

Formula, *base = percentage ÷ rate.*

EXAMPLE.—Bought a certain number of bushels of apples and sold 76% of them. If I sold 228 bushels, how many bushels did I buy?

SOLUTION.—Here 228 is the percentage, and 76%, or .76, is the rate; hence, applying the rule,

$228 \div .76 = 300$ bushels. Ans.

193. When the base and percentage are given, to find the rate, the rate may be found, expressed decimally, by dividing the percentage by the base. For, suppose that it is desired to find what per cent. 12 is of 200. 1% of 200 is $200 \times .01 = 2$. Now, if 1% is 2, 12 is evidently as many per cent. as the number of times that 2 is contained in 12, or $12 \div 2 = 6\%$. But the same result may be obtained by dividing 12, the percentage, by 200, the base, since $12 \div 200 = .06 = 6\%$. Hence,

Rule.—*When the percentage and base are given, to find the rate, divide the percentage by the base, and the result will be the rate, expressed decimally.*

Formula, *rate = percentage ÷ base.*

EXAMPLE.—Bought 300 bushels of apples and sold 228 bushels. What per cent. of the total number of bushels was sold?

SOLUTION.—Here 300 is the base and 228 is the percentage; hence, applying rule, rate $= 228 \div 300 = .76 = 76\%$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—What per cent. of 875 is 25?

SOLUTION.—Here 875 is the base and 25 is the percentage; hence, applying rule, $25 \div 875 = .02\frac{4}{7} = 2\frac{4}{7}\%$. Ans.

PROOF.—$875 \times .02\frac{4}{7} = 25$.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

194. What per cent. of

(*a*) 360 is 90?	Ans.	(*a*)	25%.
(*b*) 900 is 360?		(*b*)	40%.
(*c*) 125 is 25?		(*c*)	20%.
(*d*) 150 is 750?		(*d*)	500%.
(*e*) 280 is 112?		(*e*)	40%.
(*f*) 400 is 200?		(*f*)	50%.
(*g*) 47 is 94?		(*g*)	200%.
(*h*) 500 is 250?		(*h*)	50%.

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195. The amount may be found, when the base and rate are given, by multiplying the base by 1 plus the rate, expressed decimally. For, suppose that it is desired to find the amount when 200 is the base and 6% is the rate. The percentage is $200 \times .06 = 12$, and, according to definition, Art. **189**, the amount is $200 + 12 = 212$. But the same result may be obtained by multiplying 200 by $1 + .06$, or 1.06, since $200 \times 1.06 = 212$. Hence,

Rule.—*When the base and rate are given, to find the amount, multiply the base by 1 plus the rate, expressed decimally.*

Formula, *amount* = *base* × (1 + *rate*).

EXAMPLE.—If a man earned $725 in a year, and the next year 10% more, how much did he earn the second year?

SOLUTION.—Here 725 is the base and 10% is the rate, and the amount is required. Hence, applying the rule,

$725 \times 1.10 = \$797.50$. Ans.

196. When the base and rate are given, the difference may be found by multiplying the base by 1 minus the rate, expressed decimally. For, suppose that it is desired to find the difference when the base is 200 and the rate is 6%. The percentage is $200 \times .06 = 12$; and, according to definition, Art. **190**, the difference $= 200 - 12 = 188$. But the same result may be obtained by multiplying 200 by $1 - .06$, or .94, since $200 \times .94 = 188$. Hence,

Rule.—*When the base and rate are given, to find the difference, multiply the base by 1 minus the rate, expressed decimally.*

Formula, *difference* = *base* × (1 − *rate*).

Example.—Bought 800 bushels of apples, and sold all but 24% of them. How many bushels were sold?

Solution.—Here 800 is the base, 24% is the rate, and it is desired to find the difference. Hence, applying the rule,

$$800 \times (1 - .24) = 228 \text{ bushels. Ans.}$$

197. When the amount and rate are given, the base may be found by dividing the amount by 1 plus the rate. For, suppose that it is known that 212 equals some number increased by 6% of itself. Then it is evident that 212 equals 106% of the number (base) that it is desired to find. Consequently, if $212 = 106\%$, $1\% = \frac{212}{106} = 2$, and $100\% = 2 \times 100 = 200 =$ the base. But the same result may be obtained by dividing 212 by $1 + .06$, or 1.06, since $212 \div 1.06 = 200$. Hence,

Rule.—*When the amount and rate are given, to find the base, divide the amount by 1 plus the rate, expressed decimally.*

Formula, *base* = *amount* ÷ (1 + *rate*).

Example.—The theoretical discharge of a certain pump, when running at a piston speed of 100 feet per minute, is 278,910 gallons per day of 10 hours. Owing to leakage and other defects, this value is 25% greater than the actual discharge. What is the actual discharge?

Solution.—Here 278,910 equals the actual discharge (base) increased by 25% of itself. Consequently, 278,910 is the amount; 25% is the rate, and, applying rule,

$$\text{actual discharge} = 278{,}910 \div 1.25 = 223{,}128 \text{ gallons. Ans.}$$

198. When the difference and rate are given, the base may be found by dividing the difference by 1 minus the rate. For, suppose that 188 equals some number less 6% of itself. Then, 188 evidently equals $100 - 6 = 94\%$ of some number. Consequently, if $188 = 94\%$, $1\% = 188 \div 94 = 2$, and $100\% = 2 \times 100 = 200$. But the same result may be obtained by dividing 188 by $1 - .06$, or .94, since $188 \div .94 = 200$. Hence,

Rule.—*When the difference and rate are given, to find the base, divide the difference by 1 minus the rate, expressed decimally.*

Formula, *base* = *difference* ÷ (1 − *rate*).

EXAMPLE.—Bought a certain number of bushels of apples and sold 76% of them. If there were 72 bushels left unsold, how many bushels did I buy?

SOLUTION.—Here 72 is the difference and 76% is the rate. Applying rule,

$$72 \div (1 - .76) = 300 \text{ bushels. Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—The theoretical number of foot-pounds of work per minute required to operate a boiler feed-pump is 127,344. If 30% of the total number actually required be allowed for friction, leakage, etc., how many foot-pounds are actually required to work the pump?

SOLUTION.—Here the number actually required is the base; hence, 127,344 is the difference, and 30% is the rate. Applying the rule,

$$127{,}344 \div (1 - .30) = 181{,}920 \text{ foot-pounds. Ans.}$$

199. EXAMPLE.—A certain chimney gives a draft of 2.76 inches of water. By increasing the height 20 feet, the draft was increased to 3 inches of water. What was the gain per cent.?

SOLUTION.—Here it is evident that 3 inches is the amount and that 2.76 inches is the base. Consequently, $3 - 2.76 = .24$ inch is the percentage, and it is required to find the rate. Hence, applying the rule given in Art. **193**,

$$\text{gain per cent.} = .24 \div 2.76 = .087 = 8.7\%. \text{ Ans.}$$

200. EXAMPLE.—A certain chimney gave a draft of 3 inches of water. After an economizer had been put in, the draft was reduced to 1.2 inches of water. What was the loss per cent.?

SOLUTION.—Here it is evident that 1.2 inches is the difference (since it equals 3 inches diminished by a certain per cent., loss of itself) and 3 inches is the base. Consequently, $3 - 1.2 = 1.8$ inches is the percentage. Hence, applying the rule given in Art. **193**,

$$\text{loss per cent.} = 1.8 \div 3 = .60 = 60\%. \text{ Ans.}$$

201. To find the gain or loss per cent.:

Rule.—*Find the difference between the initial and final values; divide this difference by the initial value.*

EXAMPLE.—If a man buys a house for $1,860, and some time afterwards builds a barn for 25% of the cost of the house, does he gain or lose, and how much per cent., if he sells both house and barn for $2,100?

SOLUTION.—The cost of the barn was $1,860 × .25 = $465; consequently, the initial value, or cost, was $1,860 + $465 = $2,325. Since he sold them for $2,100, he lost $2,325 − $2,100 = $225. Hence, applying rule,

$$225 \div 2{,}325 = .0968 = 9.68\% \text{ loss. Ans.}$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

202. Solve the following:

(*a*)	What is $12\frac{1}{2}\%$ of \$900?	(*a*)	\$112.50.
(*b*)	What is $\frac{1}{2}\%$ of 627?	(*b*)	5.016.
(*c*)	What is $33\frac{1}{3}\%$ of 54?	(*c*)	18.
(*d*)	101 is $68\frac{2}{3}\%$ of what number?	(*d*)	$146\frac{10}{11}$.
(*e*)	784 is $83\frac{1}{3}\%$ of what number?	(*e*)	940.8.
(*f*)	What % of 960 is 160?	(*f*)	$16\frac{2}{3}\%$.
(*g*)	What % of \$3,606 is \$$450\frac{3}{4}$?	(*g*)	$12\frac{1}{2}\%$.
(*h*)	What % of 280 is 112?	(*h*)	40%.

Ans.

1. A steam plant consumed an average of 3,640 pounds of coal per day. The engineer made certain alterations which resulted in a saving of 250 pounds per day. What was the per cent. of coal saved? Ans. 7%, nearly.

2. If the speed of an engine running at 126 revolutions per minute should be increased $6\frac{1}{2}\%$, how many revolutions per minute would it then make? Ans. 134.19 revolutions.

3. The list price of a lot of silk goods is \$1,400; of some laces, \$1,150, and of some calico, \$340. If 25% discount was allowed on silk, 22% on the laces, and $12\frac{1}{2}\%$ on the calico, what was the actual cost of the purchase? Ans. \$2,244.50.

4. If I lend a man \$1,100, and this is $18\frac{1}{2}\%$ of the amount that I have on interest, how much money have I on interest? Ans. \$5,945.95.

5. A test showed that an engine developed 190.4 horsepower, 15% of which was consumed in friction. How much power was available for use? Ans. 161.84 H.P.

6. By adding a condenser to a steam engine, the power was increased 14%, and the consumption of coal per horsepower per hour was decreased 20%. If the engine could originally develop 50 horsepower, and required $3\frac{1}{2}$ pounds of coal per horsepower per hour, what would be the total weight of coal used in an hour, with the condenser, assuming the engine to run full power? Ans. 159.6 pounds.

DENOMINATE NUMBERS.

203. A **denominate number** is a concrete number, and may be either simple or compound, as 8 quarts, 5 feet, 10 inches, etc.

204. A **simple denominate number** consists of units of but one denomination, as 16 cents, 10 hours, 5 dollars, etc.

205. A **compound denominate number** consists of units of two or more denominations of a similar kind, as 3 yards 2 feet 1 inch ; 34 square feet 57 square inches.

206. In **whole numbers** and in **decimals** the *law* of increase and decrease is on the scale of 10, but in **compound** or **denominate numbers** the scale varies.

MEASURES.

207. A **measure** is a *standard unit*, established by *law* or *custom*, by which *quantity* of any kind is measured. The *standard unit* of **dry measure** is the Winchester bushel ; of **weight,** the pound ; of **liquid measure,** the gallon, etc.

208. Measures are of six kinds :

1. Extension.
2. Weight.
3. Capacity.
4. Time.
5. Angles.
6. Money or value.

MEASURES OF EXTENSION.

209. **Measures of extension** are used in measuring lengths, distances, surfaces, and solids.

LINEAR MEASURE.

TABLE 3.

			Abbreviation.	in.	ft.	yd.	rd.	fur.	mi.
12	inches (in.)	= 1 foot . .	ft.						
3	feet	= 1 yard . .	yd.	36 =	3 =	1			
5.5	yards	= 1 rod . . .	rd.	198 =	16½ =	5.5 =	1		
40	rods	= 1 furlong	fur.	7,920 =	660 =	220 =	40 =	1	
8	furlongs	= 1 mile . .	mi.	63,360 =	5,280 =	1,760 =	320 =	8 =	1

SURVEYOR'S LINEAR MEASURE.

TABLE 4.

7.92 inches	= 1 link	li.
25 links	= 1 rod	rd.
4 rods 100 links	= 1 chain	ch.
80 chains	= 1 mile	mi.

mi.		ch.		rd.		li.		in.
1	=	80	=	320	=	8,000	=	63,360

210. The linear unit, generally used by surveyors, is **Gunter's chain,** which is equal to 4 rods, or 66 feet.

211. An **engineer's chain,** used by civil engineers, is 100 feet long, and consists of 100 links. In computations, the links are written as so many hundredths of a chain.

SQUARE MEASURE.

TABLE 5.

144	square inches (sq. in.)	=	1 square foot	sq.ft.
9	square feet	=	1 square yard	sq.yd.
30¼	square yards	=	1 square rod	sq.rd.
160	square rods	=	1 acre	A.
640	acres	=	1 square mile	sq.mi.

sq.mi.	A.	sq.rd.	sq.yd.	sq.ft.	sq.in.
1 =	640 =	102,400 =	3,097,600 =	27,878,400 =	4,014,489,600

SURVEYOR'S SQUARE MEASURE.

TABLE 6.

625	square links	=	1 square rod	sq.rd.
16	square rods	=	1 square chain	sq.ch.
10	square chains	=	1 acre	A.
640	acres	=	1 square mile	sq.mi.
36	square miles (6 mi. square)	=	1 township	Tp.

sq.mi.		A.		sq.ch.		sq.rd.		sq.li.
1	=	640	=	6,400	=	102,400	=	64,000,000

CUBIC MEASURE.

TABLE 7.

1728	cubic inches (cu. in.)	=	1 cubic foot	cu.ft.
27	cubic feet	=	1 cubic yard	cu.yd.
128	cubic feet	=	1 cord	cd.
24¾	cubic feet	=	1 perch	P.

cu.yd.		cu.ft.		cu.in.
1	=	27	=	46,656

MEASURES OF WEIGHT.

AVOIRDUPOIS WEIGHT.

TABLE 8.

16	ounces (oz.)	=	1 pound	lb.
100	pounds	=	1 hundredweight	cwt.
20	cwt., or 2,000 lb.	=	1 ton	T.

T.		cwt.		lb.		oz.
1	=	20	=	2,000	=	32,000

212. The ounce is divided into halves, quarters, etc. Avoirdupois weight is used for weighing coarse and heavy articles. One avoirdupois pound contains 7,000 grains.

LONG TON TABLE.

TABLE 9.

16 ounces	=	1 pound	lb.
112 pounds	=	1 hundredweight	cwt.
20 cwt., or 2,240 lb.	=	1 ton	T.

213. In all the calculations throughout this and the succeeding volumes, 2,000 pounds will be considered one ton, unless the long ton (2,240 pounds) is especially mentioned.

TROY WEIGHT.

TABLE 10.

24 grains (gr.)	=	1 pennyweight	pwt.
20 pennyweights	=	1 ounce	oz.
12 ounces	=	1 pound	lb.

lb.		oz.		pwt.		gr.
1	=	12	=	240	=	5,760

214. Troy weight is used in weighing gold and silverware, jewels, etc. It is used by jewelers.

MEASURES OF CAPACITY.

LIQUID MEASURE.

TABLE 11.

4 gills (gi.)	=	1 pint	pt.
2 pints	=	1 quart	qt
4 quarts	=	1 gallon	gal.
31½ gallons	=	1 barrel	bbl.
2 barrels, or 63 gallons	=	1 hogshead	hhd.

hhd.		bbl.		gal.		qt.		pt.		gi.
1	=	2	=	63	=	252	=	504	=	2,016

DRY MEASURE.

TABLE 12.

2 pints (pt.)	=	1 quart	qt.
8 quarts	=	1 peck	pk.
4 pecks	=	1 bushel	bu.

bu.		pk.		qt.		pt.
1	=	4	=	32	=	64

MEASURE OF TIME.

TABLE 13.

60 seconds (sec.)	=	1 minute	min.
60 minutes	=	1 hour	hr.
24 hours	=	1 day	da.
7 days	=	1 week	wk.
365 days 12 months	=	1 common year	yr.
366 days	=	1 leap year.	
100 years	=	1 century.	

NOTE.—It is customary to consider one month as 30 days.

MEASURE OF ANGLES OR ARCS.

TABLE 14.

60 seconds (″)	=	1 minute	′.
60 minutes	=	1 degree	°.
90 degrees	=	1 right angle or quadrant	∟.
360 degrees	=	1 circle	cir.

cir.
1 = 360° = 21,600′ = 1,296,000″

MEASURE OF MONEY.

UNITED STATES MONEY.

TABLE 15.

10 mills (m.)	=	1 cent	ct.
10 cents	=	1 dime	d.
10 dimes	=	1 dollar	$.
10 dollars	=	1 eagle	E.

E. $ d. ct. m.
1 = 10 = 100 = 1,000 = 10,000

MISCELLANEOUS TABLE.

TABLE 16.

12 things are 1 dozen.
12 dozen are 1 gross.
12 gross are 1 great gross.
2 things are 1 pair.
20 things are 1 score.
1 league is 3 miles.
1 fathom is 6 feet.
1 meter is nearly 39.37 inches.
1 hand is 4 inches.
1 palm is 3 inches.
1 span is 9 inches.
24 sheets are 1 quire.
20 quires, or 480 sheets, are 1 ream.
1 bushel contains 2,150.4 cubic in.
1 U. S. standard gallon (also called a wine gallon) contains 231 cubic in.
1 U. S. standard gallon of water weighs 8.355 pounds, nearly.
1 cubic foot of water contains 7.481 U. S. standard gallons, nearly.
1 British imperial gallon weighs 10 pounds.

It will be of great advantage to the student to carefully memorize all of the above tables.

REDUCTION OF DENOMINATE NUMBERS.

215. Reduction of denominate numbers is the process of changing their denomination without changing their value. They may be changed from a higher to a lower denomination or from a lower to a higher—either is reduction. As,

2 hours = 120 minutes.
32 ounces = 2 pounds.

216. Principle.—Denominate numbers are changed to *lower* denominations by *multiplying*, and to *higher* denominations by *dividing*.

To reduce denominate numbers to lower denominations:

217. EXAMPLE.—Reduce 5 yd. 2 ft. 7 in. to inches.

SOLUTION.—

yd.	ft.	in.
5	2	7
3		
15 ft.		
2 ft.		
17 ft.		
12		
34		
17		
204 in.		
7 in.		
211 inches. Ans.		

EXPLANATION.—Since there are 3 feet in 1 yard, in 5 yards there are 5 × 3, or 15 feet, and 15 feet plus 2 feet = 17 feet. There are 12 inches in a foot; therefore, 12 × 17 = 204 inches, and 204 inches plus 7 inches = 211 inches = number of inches in 5 yards 2 feet and 7 inches. Ans.

218. EXAMPLE.—Reduce 6 hours to seconds.

SOLUTION.—

6	hours.
60	
360	minutes.
60	
21600	seconds. Ans.

EXPLANATION.—As there are 60 minutes in one hour, in six hours there are 6 × 60, or 360 minutes ; as there are no minutes to add, we multiply 360 minutes by 60, to get the number of seconds.

219. In order to avoid mistakes, if any denomination be omitted, represent it by a cipher. Thus, before reducing 3 rods 6 inches to inches, insert a cipher for yards and a cipher for feet; as,

rd.	yd.	ft.	in.
3	0	0	6

220. Rule.—*Multiply the number representing the highest denomination by the number of units in the next lower required to make one of the higher denomination, and to the product add the number of given units of that lower denomination. Proceed in this manner until the number is reduced to the required denomination.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

221. Reduce

(*a*) 4 rd. 2 yd. 2 ft. to ft.	Ans.	(*a*) 74 ft.
(*b*) 4 bu. 3 pk. 2 qt. to qt.		(*b*) 154 qt.
(*c*) 13 rd. 5 yd. 2 ft. to ft.		(*c*) 231.5 ft.
(*d*) 5 mi. 100 rd. 10 ft. to ft.		(*d*) 28,060 ft.
(*e*) 8 lb. 4 oz. 6 pwt. to gr.		(*e*) 48,144 gr.
(*f*) 52 hhd. 24 gal. 1 pt. to pt.		(*f*) 26,401 pt.
(*g*) 5 cir. 16° 20′ to minutes.		(*g*) 108,980′.
(*h*) 14 bu. to qt.		(*h*) 448 qt.

To reduce lower to higher denominations:

222. EXAMPLE.—Reduce 211 in. to higher denominations.

SOLUTION.—

```
12)211 in.
   8)17 ft. + 7 in.
      5 yd. + 2 ft.   Ans.
```

EXPLANATION.—There are 12 inches in 1 foot ; therefore, 211 divided by 12 = 17 feet and 7 inches over. There

are 3 feet in 1 yard; therefore, 17 feet divided by 3 = 5 yards and 2 feet over. The last quotient and the two remainders constitute the answer, 5 yards 2 feet 7 inches.

223. EXAMPLE.—Reduce 15,735 grains Troy weight to higher denominations.

SOLUTION.—

```
24)15735 gr. (655 pwt.
   144
   ---
    133
    120
    ---
     135
     120
     ---
      15 gr.
20)655 pwt. (32 oz.
   60
   ---
    55
    40
    ---
    15 pwt.
12)32 oz. (2 lb.
   24
   ---
    8 oz.
```

EXPLANATION.—There are 24 grains in 1 pennyweight, and in 15,735 grains there are as many pennyweights as 24 is contained in 15,735, or 655 pennyweights and 15 grains remaining. There are 20 pennyweights in 1 ounce, and in 655 pennyweights there are 32 ounces and 15 pennyweights remaining. There are 12 ounces in 1 pound, and in 32 ounces there are 2 pounds and 8 ounces remaining. The last quotient and the three remainders constitute the answer, 2 pounds 8 ounces 15 pennyweights 15 grains.

The above problem is worked out by long division, because the numbers are too large to solve easily by short division. The student may use either method.

224. Rule.—*Divide the number representing the denomination given by the number of units of this denomination required to make one unit of the next higher denomination. The remainder will be of the same denomination, but the quotient will be of the next higher. Divide this quotient by*

the number of units of its denomination required to make one unit of the next higher. Continue until the highest denomination is reached, or until there is not enough of a denomination left to make one of the next higher. The last quotient and the remainders constitute the required result.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

225. Reduce to units of higher denominations:

(*a*) 7,460 sq. in.; (*b*) 7,580 sq. yd.; (*c*) 148,760 cu. in.; (*d*) 7,896 cu. ft. to cd.; (*e*) 17,651″; (*f*) 1,120 cu. ft. to cd.; (*g*) 8,000 gi.; (*h*) 36,450 lb.

Ans.
(*a*) 5 sq. yd. 6 sq. ft. 116 sq. in.
(*b*) 1 A. 90 sq. rd. 17 sq. yd. 4 sq. ft. 72 sq. in.
(*c*) 3 cu. yd. 5 cu. ft. 152 cu. in.
(*d*) 61 cd. 88 cu. ft.
(*e*) 4° 54′ 11″.
(*f*) 8 cd. 96 cu. ft.
(*g*) 3 hhd. 61 gal.
(*h*) 18 T. 4 cwt. 50 lb.

ADDITION OF DENOMINATE NUMBERS.

226. EXAMPLE.—Find the sum of 3 cwt. 46 lb. 12 oz.; 8 cwt. 12 lb 13 oz.; 12 cwt. 50 lb. 13 oz.; 27 lb. 4 oz.

SOLUTION.—

T.	cwt.	lb.	oz.	
0	3	46	12	
0	8	12	13	
0	12	50	13	
0	0	27	4	
1	4	37	10	Ans.

EXPLANATION.—Begin to add at the right-hand column: $4 + 13 + 13 + 12 = 42$ ounces; as 16 ounces make 1 pound, 42 ounces $\div 16 = 2$ and a remainder of 10 ounces, or 2 pounds and 10 ounces. Place 10 ounces under ounce column, and add 2 pounds to the next or pound column. Then, $2 + 27 + 50 + 12 + 46 = 137$ pounds; as 100 pounds make a hundredweight, $137 \div 100 = 1$ hundredweight and a remainder of 37 pounds. Place the 37 under the pounds column, and add 1 hundredweight to the next or hundredweight column. Next, $1 + 12 + 8 + 3 = 24$ hundredweight.

20 hundredweight make a ton; therefore $24 \div 20 = 1$ ton and 4 hundredweight remaining. Hence, the sum is 1 ton 4 hundredweight 37 pounds 10 ounces. Ans.

227. EXAMPLE.—What is the sum of 2 rd. 3 yd. 2 ft. 5 in.; 6 rd. 1 ft. 10 in.; 17 rd. 11 in.; 4 yd. 1 ft.?

SOLUTION.—

	rd.	yd.	ft.	in.	
	2	3	2	5	
	6	0	1	10	
	17	0	0	11	
	0	4	1	0	
	26	$3\frac{1}{2}$	0	2	
or	26	3	1	8	Ans.

EXPLANATION.—The sum of the numbers in the first column = 26 inches, or 2 feet and 2 inches remaining. The sum of the numbers in the next column plus 2 feet = 6 feet, or 2 yards and 0 feet remaining. The sum of the next column plus 2 yards = 9 yards, or $9 \div 5\frac{1}{2} = 1$ rod and $3\frac{1}{2}$ yards remaining. The sum of the next column plus 1 rod = 26 rods. To avoid fractions in the sum, the $\frac{1}{2}$ yard is reduced to 1 foot and 6 inches, which added to 26 rods 3 yards 0 feet and 2 inches = 26 rods 3 yards 1 foot 8 inches. Ans.

228. EXAMPLE.—What is the sum of 47 ft. and 3 rd. 2 yd. 2 ft. 10 in.?

SOLUTION.—When 47 ft. is reduced it equals 2 rd. 4 yd. 2 ft., which can be added to 3 rd. 2 yd. 2 ft. 10 in. Thus,

	rd.	yd.	ft.	in.	
	3	2	2	10	
	2	4	2	0	
	6	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1	10	
or	6	2	0	4	Ans.

229. Rule.—*Place the numbers so that like denominations are under each other. Begin at the right-hand column, and add. Divide the sum by the number of units of this denomination required to make one unit of the next higher. Place the remainder under the column added, and carry the quotient to the next column. Continue in this manner until the highest denomination given is reached.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

230. What is the sum of

(*a*) 25 lb. 7 oz. 15 pwt. 23 gr.; 17 lb. 16 pwt.; 15 lb. 4 oz. 12 pwt.; 18 lb. 16 gr.; 10 lb. 2 oz. 11 pwt. 16 gr.?

(*b*) 9 mi. 13 rd. 4 yd. 2 ft.; 16 rd. 5 yd. 1 ft. 5 in.; 16 mi. 2 rd. 3 in.; 14 rd. 1 yd. 9 in.?

(*c*) 3 cwt. 46 lb. 12 oz.; 12 cwt. 9½ lb.; 2¼ cwt. 21⅛ lb.?

(*d*) 10 yr. 8 mo. 5 wk. 3 da.; 42 yr. 6 mo. 7 da.; 7 yr. 5 mo. 18 wk. 4 da.; 17 yr. 17 da.?

(*e*) 17 tons 11 cwt. 49 lb. 14 oz.; 16 tons 47 lb. 13 oz.; 20 tons 13 cwt. 14 lb. 6 oz.; 11 tons 4 cwt. 16 lb. 12 oz.?

(*f*) 14 sq. yd. 8 sq. ft. 19 sq. in.; 105 sq. yd. 16 sq. ft. 240 sq. in.; 42 sq. yd. 28 sq. ft. 165 sq. in.?

Ans. (*a*) 86 lb. 3 oz. 16 pwt. 7 gr.
(*b*) 25 mi. 47 rd. 1 ft. 5 in.
(*c*) 18 cwt. 2 lb. 14 oz.
(*d*) 78 yr. 1 mo. 3 wk. 3 da.
(*e*) 65 tons 9 cwt. 28 lb. 13 oz.
(*f*) 167 sq. yd. 136 sq. in.

SUBTRACTION OF DENOMINATE NUMBERS.

231. EXAMPLE.—From 21 rd. 2 yd. 2 ft. 6½ in., take 9 rd. 4 yd. 10¼ in.

SOLUTION.—

rd.	yd.	ft.	in.	
21	2	2	6½	
9	4	0	10¼	
11	3½	1	8¼	Ans.

EXPLANATION.—Since 10¼ inches cannot be taken from 6½ inches, we must borrow 1 foot, or 12 inches, from the 2 feet in the next column and add it to the 6½. $6\frac{1}{2} + 12 = 18\frac{1}{2}$. $18\frac{1}{2}$ inches $- 10\frac{1}{4}$ inches $= 8\frac{1}{4}$ inches. Then, 0 foot from the 1 remaining foot = 1 foot. 4 yards cannot be taken from 2 yards; therefore, we borrow 1 rod, or 5½ yards, from 21 rods and add it to 2. $2 + 5\frac{1}{2} = 7\frac{1}{2}$; $7\frac{1}{2} - 4 = 3\frac{1}{2}$ yards. 9 rods from 20 rods = 11 rods. Hence, the remainder is 11 rods 3½ yards 1 foot 8¼ inches. Ans.

To avoid fractions as much as possible, we reduce the ½ yard to inches, obtaining 18 inches; this added to 8¼ inches, gives 26¼ inches, which equals 2 feet 2¼ inches. Then, 2 feet + 1 foot = 3 feet = 1 yard, and 3 yards + 1 yard = 4 yards. Hence, the above answer becomes 11 rods 4 yards 0 feet 2¼ inches.

232. EXAMPLE.—What is the difference between 8 rd. 2 yd. 2 ft. 10 in. and 47 ft. ?

SOLUTION.—47 ft. = 2 rd. 4 yd. 2 ft.

	rd.	yd.	ft.	in.	
	8	2	2	10	
	2	4	2	0	
	0	$3\frac{1}{2}$	0	10	
or		3	2	4	Ans.

To find (approximately) the interval of time between two dates:

233. EXAMPLE.—How many years, months, days, and hours between 4 o'clock P.M. of June 15, 1868, and 10 o'clock A.M., September 28, 1891 ?

SOLUTION.—

yr.	mo.	da.	hr.	
1891	8	28	10	
1868	5	15	16	
23	3	12	18	Ans.

EXPLANATION.—Counting 24 hours in 1 day, 4 o'clock P.M. is the 16th hour from the beginning of the day, or midnight. On September 28, 8 months and 28 days have elapsed, and on June 15, 5 months and 15 days. After placing the earlier date under the later date, subtract as in the previous problems. Count 30 days as 1 month.

234. Rule.—*Place the smaller quantity under the larger quantity, with like denominations under each other. Beginning at the right, subtract successively the number in the subtrahend in each denomination from the one above, and place the differences underneath. If the number in the minuend of any denomination is less than the number under it in the subtrahend, one must be borrowed from the minuend of the next higher denomination, reduced and added to it.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

235. From

(*a*) 125 lb. 8 oz. 14 pwt. 18 gr. take 96 lb. 9 oz. 10 pwt. 4 gr.
(*b*) 126 hhd. 27 gal. take 104 hhd. 14 gal. 1 qt. 1 pt.
(*c*) 65 T. 14 cwt. 64 lb. 10 oz. take 16 T. 11 cwt. 14 oz.
(*d*) 148 sq. yd. 16 sq. ft. 142 sq. in. take 132 sq. yd. 136 sq. in.

(*e*) 100 bu. take 28 bu. 2 pk. 5 qt. 1 pt.
(*f*) 14 mi. 84 rd. 16 yd. 13 ft. 11 in. take 3 mi. 27 rd. 11 yd. 4 ft. 10 in.

Ans.
(*a*) 28 lb. 11 oz. 4 pwt. 14 gr.
(*b*) 22 hhd. 12 gal. 2 qt. 1 pt.
(*c*) 49 T. 3 cwt. 63 lb. 12 oz.
(*d*) 16 sq. yd. 16 sq. ft. 6 sq. in.
(*e*) 71 bu. 1 pk. 2 qt. 1 pt.
(*f*) 11 mi. 7 rd. 5 yd. 9 ft. 1 in.

MULTIPLICATION OF DENOMINATE NUMBERS.

236. EXAMPLE.—Multiply 7 lb. 5 oz. 13 pwt. 15 gr. by 12.

SOLUTION.—

lb.	oz.	pwt.	gr.	
7	5	13	15	
			12	
89	8	3	12	Ans.

EXPLANATION.—15 grains $\times$ 12 = 180 grains. 180 $\div$ 24 = 7 pennyweights and 12 grains remaining. Place the 12 in the grain column and carry the 7 pennyweights to the next. Now, 13 $\times$ 12 + 7 = 163 pennyweights; 163 $\div$ 20 = 8 ounces and 3 pennyweights remaining. Then, 5 $\times$ 12 + 8 = 68 ounces; 68 $\div$ 12 = 5 pounds and 8 ounces remaining. Then, 7 $\times$ 12 + 5 = 89 pounds. The entire product is 89 pounds 8 ounces 3 pennyweights 12 grains. Ans.

237. Rule.—*Multiply the number representing each denomination by the multiplier, and reduce each product to the next higher denomination, writing the remainders under each denomination, and carrying the quotient to the next, as in Addition of Denominate Numbers.*

238. NOTE.—In multiplication and division of denominate numbers, it is sometimes easier to reduce the number to the lowest denomination given before multiplying or dividing, especially if the multiplier or divisor is a decimal. Thus, in the above example, had the multiplier been 1.2, the easiest way to multiply would have been to reduce the number to grains; then, multiply by 1.2, and reduce the product to higher denominations. For example, 7 lb. 5 oz. 13 pwt. 15 gr. = 43,047 gr. 43,047 $\times$ 1.2 = 51,656.4 gr. = 8 lb. 11 oz. 12 pwt. 8.4 gr. Also, 43,047 $\times$ 12 = 516,564 gr. = 89 lb. 8 oz. 3 pwt. 12 gr., as above. The student may use either method.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

239. Multiply

(*a*) 15 cwt. 90 lb. by 5; (*b*) 12 yr. 10 mo. 4 wk. 3 da. by 14; (*c*) 11 mi. 145 rd. by 20; (*d*) 12 gal. 4 pt. by 9; (*e*) 8 cd. 76 cu. ft. by 15; (*f*) 4 hhd. 3 gal. 1 qt. 1 pt. by 12.

Ans. (*a*) 79 cwt. 50 lb.
(*b*) 180 yr. 11 mo. 2 wk.
(*c*) 229 mi. 20 rd.
(*d*) 112 gal. 2 qt.
(*e*) 128 cd. 116 cu. ft.
(*f*) 48 hhd. 40 gal. 2 qt.

DIVISION OF DENOMINATE NUMBERS.

240. EXAMPLE.—Divide 48 lb. 11 oz. 6 pwt. by 8.

SOLUTION.—

	lb.	oz.	pwt.	gr.	
8)	48	11	6	0	
	6 lb.	1 oz.	8 pwt.	6 gr.	Ans.

EXPLANATION.—After placing the quantities as above, proceed as follows: 8 is contained in 48 six times without a remainder. 8 is contained in 11 ounces once with 3 ounces remaining. $3 \times 20 = 60$; $60 + 6 = 66$ pennyweights; 66 pennyweights $\div 8 = 8$ pennyweights and 2 remaining; 2×24 grains $= 48$ grains; 48 grains $\div 8 = 6$ grains. Therefore, the entire quotient is 6 pounds 1 ounce 8 pennyweights 6 grains. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—A silversmith melted up 2 lb. 8 oz. 10 pwt. of silver, which he made into 6 spoons; what was the weight of each spoon?

SOLUTION.—

	lb.	oz.	pwt.		
6)	2	8	10		
		5 oz.	8 pwt.	8 gr.	Ans.

EXPLANATION.—Since we cannot divide 2 pounds by 6, we reduce it to ounces. 2 pounds $= 24$ ounces, and 24 ounces $+ 8$ ounces $= 32$ ounces; 32 ounces $\div 6 = 5$ ounces and 2 ounces over. 2 ounces $= 40$ pennyweights. 40 pennyweights $+ 10$ pennyweights $= 50$ pennyweights, and 50 pennyweights $\div 6 = 8$ pennyweights and 2 pennyweights over. 2 pennyweights $= 48$ grains, and 48 grains $\div 6 = 8$ grains. Hence, each spoon contains 5 ounces 8 pennyweights 8 grains. **Ans.**

241. EXAMPLE.—Divide 820 rd. 4 yd. 2 ft. by 112.

SOLUTION.—

```
                 rd.   yd. ft.  rd. yd. ft.   in.
112)820   4   2 ( 7   1   2   5.143  Ans.
    784
     36 rd. rem.
     5.5
    180
   180
   198.0 yd.
      4
112)202 yd. ( 1 yd.
    112
     90 yd. rem.
      3
    270 ft.
      2 ft.
112)272 ft. ( 2 ft.
    224
     48 ft. rem.
     12
     96
    48
112)576 in. ( 5.1428 + in., or 5.143 in.
    560
     160
     112
      480
      448
       320
       224
        960
        896
         64
```

EXPLANATION.—The first quotient is 7 rods with 36 rods remaining. $5.5 \times 36 = 198$ yards; 198 yards + 4 yards = 202 yards; 202 yards ÷ 112 = 1 yard and 90 yards remaining. $90 \times 3 = 270$ feet; 270 feet + 2 feet = 272 feet; 272 feet ÷ 112 = 2 feet and 48 feet remaining; $48 \times 12 = 576$ inches; 576 inches ÷ 112 = 5.143 inches, nearly. Ans.

The preceding example is solved by long division, because the numbers are too large to deal with mentally. Instead of expressing the last result as a decimal, it might have been expressed as a common fraction. Thus, $576 \div 112 = 5\frac{16}{112} = 5\frac{1}{7}$ inches. The chief advantage of using a common fraction is that if the quotient be multiplied by the divisor, the result will always be the same as the original dividend.

242. Rule.—*Find how many times the divisor is contained in the first or highest denomination of the dividend. Reduce the remainder (if any) to the next lower denomination, and add to it the number in the given dividend expressing that denomination. Divide this new dividend by the divisor. The quotient will be the next denomination in the quotient required. Continue in this manner until the lowest denomination is reached. The successive quotients will constitute the entire quotient.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

243. Divide

(*a*) 376 mi. 276 rd. by 22; (*b*) 1,137 bu. 3 pk. 4 qt. 1 pt. by 10; (*c*) 84 cwt. 48 lb. 49 oz. by 16; (*d*) 78 sq. yd. 18 sq. ft. 41 sq. in. by 18; (*e*) 148 mi. 64 rd. 24 yd. by 12; (*f*) 100 tons 16 cwt. 18 lb. 11 oz. by 15; (*g*) 86 lb. 18 oz. 18 pwt. 14 gr. by 8; (*h*) 112 mi. 48 rd. by 100.

Ans.
- (*a*) 17 mi. $41\frac{7}{11}$ rd.
- (*b*) 113 bu. 3 pk. 1 qt. $\frac{1}{5}$ pt.
- (*c*) 5 cwt. 28 lb. $3\frac{1}{16}$ oz.
- (*d*) 4 sq.yd. 4 sq.ft. $2\frac{5}{18}$ sq.in.
- (*e*) 12 mi. 112 rd. 2 yd.
- (*f*) 6 tons 14 cwt. 41 lb. $3\frac{14}{15}$ oz.
- (*g*) 4 lb. 8 oz. 7 pwt. $7\frac{3}{4}$ gr.
- (*h*) 1 mi. $38\frac{33}{50}$ rd.

ARITHMETIC.

(SECTION 5.)

INVOLUTION.

244. If a product consists of equal factors, it is called **a power** of one of those equal factors, and one of the equal factors is called a **root** of the product. The power and the root are named according to the number of equal factors in the product. Thus, 3×3, or 9, is the *second power*, or **square,** of 3; $3 \times 3 \times 3$, or 27, is the *third power*, or **cube,** of 3; $3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3$, or 81, is the **fourth power** of 3. Also, 3 is the **second root,** or **square root,** of 9; 3 is the **third root,** or **cube root,** of 27; 3 is the **fourth root** of 81.

245. For the sake of brevity,

3×3 is written 3^2, and read **three square,**
or *three exponent two;*

$3 \times 3 \times 3$ is written 3^3, and read **three cube,**
or *three exponent three;*

$3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3$ is written 3^4, and read **three fourth,**
or *three exponent four;*

and so on.

A number written above and to the right of another number, to show how often the latter number is used as a factor, is called an **exponent.** Thus, in 3^{12}, the number ^{12} is the exponent, and shows that 3 is to be used as a factor twelve times; so that 3^{12} is a contraction for

$$3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3.$$

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In an expression like 3^4, the exponent ^{4} shows how often 3 is used as a factor. Hence, if the exponent of a number is unity, the number is used once as a factor; thus, $3^1 = 3$, $4^1 = 4$, $5^1 = 5$.

246. If the side of a square contains 5 inches, the area of the square contains 5×5, or 5^2, square inches. If the edge of a cube contains 5 inches, the volume of the cube contains $5 \times 5 \times 5$, or 5^3, cubic inches. It is for this reason that 5^2 and 5^3 are called the square and cube of 5, respectively.

247. To find any power of a number:

EXAMPLE 1.—What is the third power, or cube, of 35?

SOLUTION.— $35 \times 35 \times 35$

```
or        35
          35
         ---
         175
       105
      ----
      1225
        35
      ----
      6125
     3675
    -----
cube = 42875  Ans.
```

EXAMPLE 2.—What is the fourth power of 15?

SOLUTION.— $15 \times 15 \times 15 \times 15$

```
or        15
          15
         ---
         75
       15
      ----
      225
        15
      ----
      1125
     225
    -----
     3375
       15
    -----
    16875
    3375
   ------
fourth power = 50625  Ans.
```

EXAMPLE 3.— 1.2^3 = what?

SOLUTION.— $1.2 \times 1.2 \times 1.2$

```
or      1.2
        1.2
       ----
       1.44
        1.2
       ----
        288
      144
     -------
cube = 1.728  Ans.
```

EXAMPLE 4.—What is the third power, or cube, of $\frac{3}{8}$?

SOLUTION.— $\left(\frac{3}{8}\right)^3 = \frac{3^3}{8^3} = \frac{3}{8} \times \frac{3}{8} \times \frac{3}{8} = \frac{3 \times 3 \times 3}{8 \times 8 \times 8} = \frac{27}{512}$. Ans.

248. Rule.—I. *To raise a whole number or a decimal to any power, use it as a factor as many times as there are units in the exponent.*

II. *To raise a fraction to any power, raise both the numerator and denominator to the power indicated by the exponent.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

Raise the following to the powers indicated:

(*a*) 85^2.		(*a*)	7,225.
(*b*) $(\frac{12}{11})^2$.		(*b*)	$\frac{144}{121}$.
(*c*) 6.5^2.		(*c*)	42.25.
(*d*) 14^4.		(*d*)	38,416.
(*e*) $(\frac{3}{4})^3$.	Ans.	(*e*)	$\frac{27}{64}$.
(*f*) $(\frac{5}{6})^3$.		(*f*)	$\frac{125}{216}$.
(*g*) $(\frac{7}{4})^3$.		(*g*)	$\frac{343}{64}$.
(*h*) 1.4^5.		(*h*)	5.37824.

EVOLUTION.

249. Evolution is the reverse of involution. It is the process of finding the root of a number that is considered as a power.

250. The **square root** of a number is that number which when used twice as a factor produces the number.

Thus, 2 is the square root of 4, since 2×2, or $2^2 = 4$.

251. The **cube root** of a number is that number which when used three times as a factor produces the number.

Thus, 3 is the cube root of 27, since $3 \times 3 \times 3$, or $3^3 = 27$.

252. The **radical sign** $\sqrt{\ }$ when placed before a number indicates that some root of that number is to be found. The vinculum is almost always used in connection with the radical sign, as shown in Art. **253.**

253. The **index** of the root is a *small figure* placed *over* and to the *left* of the *radical sign*, to show what root is to be found.

Thus, $\sqrt[2]{100}$ denotes the *square root* of 100.
$\sqrt[3]{125}$ denotes the *cube root* of 125.
$\sqrt[4]{256}$ denotes the *fourth root* of 256, and so on.

254. When the square root is to be extracted, the index is generally omitted. Thus, $\sqrt{100}$ indicates the square root of 100. Also, $\sqrt{225}$ indicates the square root of 225.

255. In any number, the figures beginning with the first digit* at the left and ending with the last digit at the right, are called the **significant figures** of the number. Thus, the number 405,800 has the four significant figures 4, 0, 5, 8; and the number .000090067 has the five significant figures 9, 0, 0, 6, and 7.

The part of a number consisting of its significant figures is called the **significant part** of the number. Thus, in the number 28,070, the significant part is 2807; in the number .00812, the significant part is 812; and in the number 170.3, the significant part is 1703.

In speaking of the significant figures or of the significant part of a number, we consider the figures, in their proper order, from the first digit at the left to the last digit at the right, but we pay no attention to the position of the decimal point. Hence, *all numbers that differ only in the position of the decimal point have the same significant part.* For example, .002103, 21.03, 21,030, and 210,300 have the same significant figures 2, 1, 0, and 3 and the same significant part 2103.

---

*A cipher is not a digit.

SQUARE ROOT.

256. The *largest* number that can be written with *one* figure is 9, and $9^2 = 81$; the *largest* number that can be written with *two* figures is 99, and $99^2 = 9{,}801$; with *three* figures 999, and $999^2 = 998{,}001$; with *four* figures 9,999, and $9{,}999^2 = 99{,}980{,}001$, etc.

In *each* of the above it will be noticed that the square of the number contains just *twice* as many figures as the number.

In order to find the square root of a number, the first step is to find how many figures there will be in the root. This is done by pointing off the number into *periods* of *two* figures each, *beginning at the right.* The number of periods will indicate the number of figures in the root.

Thus, the square root of 83,740,801 must contain 4 figures, since, pointing off the periods, we get 83′74′08′01, or 4 periods; consequently, there must be 4 figures in the root. In like manner, the square root of 50,625 must contain 3 figures, since there are (5′06′25) 3 periods. The extreme left-hand period may contain either one or two figures, according to the size of the number squared.

257. The square of any number wholly decimal always contains twice as many figures as the number squared. For example, $.1^2 = .01$, $.13^2 = .0169$, $.751^2 = .564001$, etc.

258. It will also be noticed that the square of a decimal is always less than the decimal. Hence, the square root of a number wholly decimal is greater than the number itself. If it be required to find the square root of a decimal, and the decimal has not an even number of figures in it, annex a cipher. The best way to point off a decimal is to begin at the decimal point, and, going towards the *right*, point off the decimal into periods of two figures each. Then, if the last period contains but one figure, annex a cipher to complete the period.

259. There are comparatively few numbers that can be separated into exactly equal factors; these numbers are called

perfect powers, and the factors are called *rational factors.* Numbers that cannot be separated into exactly equal factors are called **imperfect powers,** and the factors are called **surds** or *irrational factors.* In the numbers from 1 to 1,000, inclusive, there are only 42 perfect powers, not counting 1; and of these only 30 are perfect squares and 9 perfect cubes.

The root of any number that cannot be divided into as many equal factors as there are units in the index of the root contains an interminable decimal. For example, the number 20 lies between 16 ($= 4^2$) and 25 ($= 5^2$); hence, the square root of 20, or $\sqrt{20}$, is greater than 4 and less than 5, and is therefore equal to 4 plus an interminable decimal. In other words, no matter to how many figures the square root of 20 may be calculated, the root will never be found exactly.

260. Although the root of an imperfect power cannot be found exactly, as close an approximation may be obtained as is desired. In practice, five significant figures are all that are likely to be required, and four are generally sufficient. In the following examples, all roots will be calculated to five figures, unless the given number is a perfect power whose root contains less than five figures.

261. The student will find the following principles of value, both in connection with the extraction of roots and in other arithmetical calculations:

a. In general, if any two numbers are multiplied together —no matter how many significant figures they contain—the first five significant figures of the product will be the same as the first five significant figures of the product obtained by multiplying the same two numbers when limited to five significant figures.

For example, the product of 4,562,357 and 6,421,849 is 29,298,767,738,093; limiting the numbers to five significant figures, the product of 45,624 and 64,218 is 2,929,882,032; and the value of both these products to five significant figures is 29,299. In other words, if only five significant figures are required in the product, it is not

necessary to use more than five significant figures in the multiplier and multiplicand, the remaining figures, if any, being replaced by ciphers, and the fifth figures being increased by 1 if the sixth figure is 5 or a larger digit. In some cases, however, the fifth figure may be one unit too large or one unit too small; hence, if it is necessary that the fifth figure be absolutely exact, it is better to limit the multiplier and multiplicand to six figures instead of five.

For example, $4,562,347 \times 6,421,849 = 29,298,703,519,603$, or $29,299,000,000,000$ to five significant figures; $4,562,300 \times 6,421,800 = 29,298,178,140,000 = 29,298,000,000,000$ to five significant figures, the fifth figure being 1 less than it should be; but $4,562,350 \times 6,421,850 = 29,298,727,347,500 = 29,299,000,000,000$ to five significant figures.

b. If the divisor and dividend are limited to six significant figures, the quotient will always be correct to five (usually to six) significant figures, regardless of how many significant figures there may have been in the dividend and divisor.

For example, $6,421,849 \div 4,562,357 = 1.407572+ = 1.4076$ to five significant figures; also, $642,185 \div 456,236 = 1.407571+ = 1.4076$ to five significant figures.

c. If the number whose root is to be extracted be limited to six significant figures, the root will be correct to five (usually to six) significant figures.

262. These principles may all be summed up in the following general statement: *In any series of arithmetical operations —addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, involution, and evolution—if it be desired to have the final result limited to a certain number of significant figures, it is unnecessary to use more significant figures in any of the numbers operated on than the desired number in the result plus 1.* For example, if only four significant figures are desired in the final result, all the numbers used in the various operations may be limited to $4 + 1 = 5$ significant figures, the fifth figure being increased by 1 in all cases if the sixth figure is 5 or a greater digit.

From the foregoing, it follows that any method that will give five significant figures of the root correctly will be

sufficiently exact for all practical purposes. Such a method will now be explained for extracting square root.

263. Suppose it is desired to find the square root of 20; that is, $\sqrt{20} = ?$ The problem is to divide 20 into two equal factors, or into two factors, the first five significant figures of which shall be equal. Since 20 is not a perfect square, inspection shows that one of the equal factors is 4 plus an interminable decimal, since 20 lies between $4^2 = 16$ and $5^2 = 25$. Dividing 20 by 4, the result is 5; i. e., $4 \times 5 = 20$. Now, by taking the average of these unequal factors, a new factor will be obtained, which will be nearer the correct value of the root than either of the two unequal factors, viz., $\frac{4+5}{2} = 4.5$, the square of which is $4.5^2 = 20.25$.

Assuming 4.5 for a new factor and dividing 20 by it, the result is $20 \div 4.5 = 4.444+$; that is, $4.444 \times 4.5 = 20$, nearly, the product not being exactly equal to 20 because 4.444 was used as one factor, instead of $4\frac{4}{9}$, the exact value. Again, taking the average of the two factors, $\frac{4.444 + 4.5}{2} = 4.472$, which is the root correct to at least three figures.

Assuming 4.47 to be one of the factors and dividing 20 by it to obtain the other, the result is $20 \div 4.47 = 4.474272+$; that is, $4.47 \times 4.474273 = 20$, very nearly. The average of these two factors is $\frac{4.47 + 4.474272}{2} = 4.472136+ = 4.4721$ to five significant figures. The exact root to 13 figures is 4.472135954999+.

That 4.4721 is the square root of 20 correct to five figures may easily be proved by squaring it; thus, $4.4721^2 = 19.99967841$, or 20.000 to five figures. Since the square agrees with the given number to five figures, the root is correct to five figures.

264. A close examination of the foregoing results reveals some remarkable facts. (1) The value of the first average 4.5 is correct to two figures of the root. (2) The value of the second average 4.472+ is correct to four figures of the root. (3) The value of the third average 4.472136 is correct

to seven figures of the root. (4) All these averages are somewhat greater than the correct value of the root. (5) Of the two factors used in finding the average, one is a little greater and the other a little less than the correct value of the root. (6) Each step of the process gives a result approaching more and more nearly to the correct value of the root.

265. Calling the first average value the **first approximation,** the second average value the **second approximation,** and the third average value the **third approximation,** the following general method of procedure may be adopted: *Calculate the first approximation to two significant figures; the second approximation to three significant figures; and the third approximation to five significant figures. It is not safe to calculate the second approximation to more than three significant figures, because the fourth figure cannot, as a rule, be depended on. If the second significant figure of the first approximation be determined correctly, the third approximation will always be correct to at least five significant figures.*

266. The method will now be applied to numbers in general, and the best manner of explaining it is by means of examples.

EXAMPLE.— $\sqrt{714,627} = ?$

SOLUTION.—The first step is to point off the number into periods of two figures each, obtaining 71'46'27. To find the first approximation, only the first two significant figures are necessary; in this case, the first period, 71. The first figure of the root is evidently 8, since $8^2 = 64$ and $9^2 = 81$. The two factors then are 8 and $71 \div 8 = 8.87+$. The first approximation is $\frac{8 + 8.87}{2} = 8.43+ = 8.4$ to two figures.

To find the second approximation, use the first two periods, or 7146, and drop the decimal point in the first approximation. One factor is then 84 and the other $7146 \div 84 = 85.07+$. The second approximation is therefore $\frac{84 + 85.07}{2} = 84.53+$, or 84.5 to three figures.

To find the third approximation, use the first three periods, or 714627, and drop the decimal point in the second approximation. One factor is then 845 and the other is $714627 \div 845 = 845.712+$. The third approximation is therefore $\frac{845 + 845.712}{2} = 845.356$, or 845.36 to five significant figures. Ans.

REMARK.—It will be noticed in the last example, and also in those that follow, that when finding the unknown factor to be used in determining the value of the first, second, or third approximation, the division is carried one place farther than the number of figures desired in the approximation and that no attention is paid to the succeeding figures. Thus, in the last example, $71 \div 8 = 8.875$, or 8.88, correct to three figures, while the number used was 8.87. The reason for this is that the value obtained for the approximation would be the same in either case, and it saves time to calculate as here shown. For instance, using 8.88 for the second factor, the first approximation is $\frac{8 + 8.88}{2}$ $= 8.44$, or 8.4 to two figures.

267. The decimal point is located by employing the following principle: *There must be as many figures in the integral* part of the root as there are periods in the integral part of the given number whose root is to be found. If the given number is wholly decimal and there are two or more ciphers between the decimal point and the first significant figure, there will be as many ciphers between the decimal point and the first significant figure of the root as there are entirely cipher periods between the decimal point and the first significant figure of the given number.* Had the number in the last example been 71.4627, the root would have been 8.4536; had it been .714627, the root would have been .84536; had it been .0000714627, the root would have been .0084536. In the latter case, the number would have been pointed off thus, .00'00'71'46'27.

268. In all cases, numbers having the same significant parts and the same number of significant figures in the first (or left-hand) period of the significant part of the number, have the same significant figures in the root, the roots differing only in the position of the decimal point.

EXAMPLE.— $\sqrt{714.627} = ?$

SOLUTION.—Pointing off into periods, we have 7'14.62'70, adding a cipher to complete the last period. In all cases when pointing off the decimal part of numbers, begin at the decimal point and point off to the right, and add ciphers to the last period when it does not contain enough figures to make up a period. Since the first period contains but one figure and it is necessary to have two figures at least in order that the first approximation may be correct to two figures, regard the

* The *integral* part of a number is the part to the left of the decimal point. Thus, the integral part of 1,726.943 is 1,726.

decimal point as situated between 7 and 1 instead of between 4 and 6, thus obtaining 7.1 for the first two figures of the given number. The first two figures of the square root of 7.1 will be the same as the first two figures of the square root of 714.

It is evident that the first figure of the root is 2, since $2^2 = 4$ and $3^2 = 9$. Using 2 as one factor, the other is $7.1 \div 2 = 3.55$, and the first approximation is $\frac{2 + 3.55}{2} = 2.77+$, or 2.8 to two figures. Had 3 been used as one factor, the other would have been $7.1 \div 3 = 2.36+$, and the first approximation would have been $\frac{3 + 2.36}{2} = 2.68$, or 2.7 to two figures. In the first case, the difference between the two factors is $3.55 - 2 = 1.55$; in the second case, the difference is $3 - 2.36 = .64$. As the factors are more nearly equal in the second case than in the first, it is evident that 2.7 is more nearly equal to the correct value of the root than 2.8 is; hence, 2.7 will be used for the first approximation.

For the second approximation, use the first two periods and 27 for one factor, the other factor being $715 \div 27 = 26.48+$; hence, the second approximation $= \frac{27 + 26.48}{2} = 26.74$, or 26.7 to three figures. We used 715 for the first three figures of the given number, instead of 714, because the fourth figure was 6 and the number correct to three figures was 715. In finding the third approximation, the first three periods may be used or all the figures; the result will be the same in either case. Since it is better to use six figures than five, move the decimal point two places to the right, obtaining 71462.7; one factor is 267 and the other $71462.7 \div 267 = 267.650+$. The third approximation is $\frac{267 + 267.650}{2} = 267.325$, or 267.33 to five figures. Since there are two periods in the integral part of the given number, there are two figures in the integral part of the root, and $\sqrt{714.627} = 26.733$. Ans.

269. When determining the first approximation, that number should always be used for the first factor which will make the less difference between it and the second factor, as was done in the last example. Thus, for 2.5, the factors would be 2 and 1.25, the difference between them being .75. If 1 were selected for the first factor, the other would be $2.5 \div 1 = 2.5$, and the difference between them 1.5. In one case, the first approximation would be $\frac{2 + 1.25}{2} = 1.6+$, and in the other case, $\frac{1 + 2.5}{2} = 1.8-$. Since $1.6^2 = 2.56$ and

$1.8^2 = 3.24$, it is evident 1.6 is very much nearer the correct value of the root than 1.8.

270. If the given number is a perfect square and contains not more than ten significant figures, the exact root will be obtained in all cases. That the number is a perfect square may be suspected by the fact that there are one or more 9's or 0's following the fifth figure of the number expressing the third approximation, and that when the third approximation is expressed correct to five figures, the square of its last digit (or the second figure of this square when the square contains more than one figure) will be the same as the last digit of the given number. This will be illustrated by two examples.

EXAMPLE.— $\sqrt{3,749,602,756} = ?$

SOLUTION.—Pointing off, we obtain 37'49'60'27'56. The first two factors are evidently 6 and $37 \div 6 = 6.16+$, and the first approximation $\frac{6 + 6.16}{2} = 6.08$, or 6.1 to two figures.

$$3749 \div 61 = 61.45+; \frac{61 + 61.45}{2} = 61.23-, \text{ or } 61.2 \text{ to three figures.}$$

$$374960 \div 612 = 612.67973+; \frac{612 + 612.67973}{2} = 612.33986+,$$

or 612.34 to five figures. But $4^2 = 16$, and as the last figure of the given number is also 6, and as the sixth and seventh figures are 9 and 8, respectively, we suspect that the given number is a perfect power. It may not be, however, for the reason that the figures 5, 7, and 2, preceding 6, may be different from the ones given without changing the value of the root to five figures. Hence, the only way to ascertain the fact beyond possibility of doubt is to square the root; doing so, it is found that $61,234^2 = 3,749,602,756$, which is therefore a perfect square.

Had all the figures of the given number been used in finding the third approximation, the result would have been as follows: $3,749,602,756 \div 612 = 612.6801+$, and $\frac{612 + 612.6801}{2} = 612.34005+$, or 612.34 to five figures, as before, or 61,234 after locating the decimal point. Ans.

271. If the given number contains not more than three periods of significant figures—that is, if it contains not more than five or six significant figures—and is a perfect power, the fact will be revealed when finding the second factor in

the third approximation, for the two factors will then be exactly equal.

EXAMPLE.— $\sqrt{.00095481} = ?$

SOLUTION.— $.00095481 = .00'09'54'81$ when pointed off into periods of two figures each. The first two significant figures are 9.5. The first factor is evidently 3 and the second factor $9.5 \div 3 = 3.16+$. The first approximation is $\frac{3 + 3.16}{2} = 3.08$, or 3.1 to two figures.

$955 \div 31 = 30.80+$; the second approximation is $\frac{31 + 30.80}{2} = 30.90 = 30.9$ to three figures.

$95481 \div 309 = 309$; hence, .00095481 is a perfect power and the significant figures of the root are 309. There being one full cipher period following the decimal point, the root is .0309. Ans.

272. One more example will be given to show the student how to arrange his work when solving examples in square root by this method.

EXAMPLE.— $\sqrt{3,265.47} = ?$

SOLUTION.— $3,265.47 = 32'65.47$.

$33 \div 5 = 6.6$; $33 \div 6 = 5.5$; $6.6 - 5 = 1.6$; $6 - 5.5 = .5$; hence, use 6 for first factor.

$$\frac{6 + 5.5}{2} = 5.75, \text{ or } 5.8.$$

$$3,265 \div 58 = 56.29; \frac{58 + 56.29}{2} = 57.14, \text{ or } 57.1.$$

$826,547 \div 571 = 571.886$; $\frac{571 + 571.886}{2} = 571.443$, or 571.44 to five figures. Therefore, $\sqrt{3,265.47} = 57.144$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

Find the square root of:

(*a*)	186,624.	Ans.	(*a*)	432.
(*b*)	2,050,624.		(*b*)	1,432.
(*c*)	29,855,296.		(*c*)	5,464.
(*d*)	.0116964.		(*d*)	.10815—.
(*e*)	198.1369.		(*e*)	14.076+.
(*f*)	994,009.		(*f*)	997.
(*g*)	2.375.		(*g*)	1.5411+.
(*h*)	1.625.		(*h*)	1.2748—.
(*i*)	.3025.		(*i*)	.55.
(*j*)	.571428.		(*j*)	.75593—.
(*k*)	.78125.		(*k*)	.88388+.

CUBE ROOT.

273. Cube root may be extracted in a manner similar to that just described for square root, the only essential differences being that the given number must be pointed off into periods of *three* figures each; the first period, if integral, may contain one, two, or three figures; and the number must be divided into three equal factors.

274. As might be expected, cube root is a longer operation than square root, but the method is similar and is no more difficult to remember or apply. As in the case of square root, it is unnecessary to use more than six significant figures in order to obtain five significant figures of the root. The method is best illustrated by an example. The student is advised to make a little table, containing the cubes of numbers from 1 to 9, similar to that here given.

$1^3 = 1$
$2^3 = 8$
$3^3 = 27$
$4^3 = 64$
$5^3 = 125$
$6^3 = 216$
$7^3 = 343$
$8^3 = 512$
$9^3 = 729$

EXAMPLE.— $\sqrt[3]{389,247} = ?$

SOLUTION.— $389,247 = 389'247$ when pointed off into periods of three figures each. As in the case of square root, consider the first period only when finding the first approximation. In other words, divide 389 into three factors as nearly equal as possible. It is readily seen that 389 lies between $7^3 = 343$ and $8^3 = 512$; hence, the first figure of the root is 7. Now, assume that two of the equal factors are each equal to 7 and divide 389 by their product to obtain the third factor; that is, divide 389 by $7^2 = 49$. The result is $389 \div 49 = 7.93+$. Hence, $7 \times 7 \times 7.93+ = 389$, nearly. The average of these factors is $\frac{7 + 7 + 7.93}{3} = \frac{2 \times 7 + 7.93}{3} = 7.31$, or 7.3 to two figures, the first approximation.

Assuming 73 to be the value of two of the three equal factors, divide the first two periods of the given number by their product 73×73: that is, by 73^2, or 5,329. The result is $389,247 \div 5,329 = 73.04+$; that is, $7.3 \times 7.3 \times 73.04 = 389,247$, nearly. The average of the three factors is $\frac{2 \times 73 + 73.04}{3} = 73.01$, or 73.0 to three figures, the second approximation.

Assuming 730 to be two of the three equal factors, divide 389,247 by 730^2, or by 73^2, since the cipher at the right is not a significant figure and will not affect the result, obtaining for the third factor 73.0431.

The average of these three factors is $\frac{2 \times 73 + 73.0431}{3} = 73.0143$, or 73.014 to five figures. Ans.

NOTE.—The decimal point is located by applying the principle of Art. **267**; viz., there must be as many figures in the integral part of the root as there are periods in the integral part of the given number.

275. An inspection of the foregoing example shows that about the only respect in which the work of extracting cube root exceeds the work of extracting square root consists in squaring one number of two figures and one number of three figures. The work of division in finding the third factor is a little harder on account of the divisors being a little larger than when finding the second factor in square root.

276. If the given number contains an integral part, it is better to locate the decimal point as soon as possible, in order to prevent confusion, instead of waiting until the third approximation has been found.

EXAMPLE.— $\sqrt[3]{3.274} = ?$

SOLUTION.—The first period contains but one figure; therefore, we operate on three figures in order to have the first approximation correct to two figures (see **c**, Art. **261**). If 1 be chosen for one of the two equal factors, the third factor will be $3.27 \div 1^2 = 3.27$, and the difference between one of the equal factors and the third factor will be $3.27 - 1 = 2.27$. If 2 be chosen for one of the equal factors, the third one will be $3.27 \div 2^2 = .817+$, and the difference between this and one of the equal factors is $2 - .817 = 1.183$. Since 1.18 is less than 2.27, use 2 for one of the two equal factors. The first approximation is $\frac{2 \times 2 + .817}{3} = 1.60+$, or 1.6 to two figures. Since there is but one period in the integral part of the given number, the root is equal to 1 plus an interminable decimal, as the given number is not a perfect cube. Therefore, retain the decimal point in its present position through all the subsequent operations.

Assuming 1.6 to be one of the two equal factors, the third factor is $3.274 \div 1.6^2 = 3.274 \div 2.56 = 1.278+$, and the second approximation is $\frac{2 \times 1.6 + 1.278}{3} = 1.492+$, or 1.49 to three figures.

Assuming 1.49 to be one of the two equal factors, the other factor is $3.274 \div 1.49^2 = 3.274 \div 2.2201 = 1.474708+$; hence, the third approximation is $\frac{2 \times 1.49 + 1.474708}{3} = 1.484902+$, or 1.4849 to five figures. Ans.

The exact root to seven figures is 1.484886—.

277. The only case in cube root that will give any trouble in determining the fifth significant figure correctly is when the difference between the numbers representing the first and second approximations, expressed to two figures, is greater than one unit in the second figure. In the last example, the first approximation was 1.6 and the second 1.49, or 1.5 to two figures; the difference is .1, or one unit in the second figure. For numbers the significant part of whose first period is 2, the difference between the first and second approximations may differ by more than one unit in the second figure; in such cases, recalculate the second approximation, using for one of the equal factors the value of the second approximation to two figures as first determined. An example will illustrate this.

EXAMPLE.— $\sqrt[3]{.0027} = ?$

SOLUTION.— .0027 = .002'700 when pointed off into periods. But, the significant figures in the cube root of 2.7 will be the same as in the cube root of .002'700; therefore, find the cube root of 2.7 and locate the decimal point after the operation is finished.

If 1 be chosen as one of the equal factors, the third factor will be $2.7 \div 1^2 = 2.7$, and the first approximation is $\frac{2 \times 1 + 2.7}{3} = 1.56+$, or 1.6 to two figures. If 2 be chosen for one of the equal factors, the third factor is $2.7 \div 2^2 = .675$, and the first approximation is $\frac{2 \times 2 + .675}{3} = 1.55+$, or 1.6 to two figures.

Using 1.6 for one of the equal factors, the third factor is $2.7 \div 1.6^2 = 2.7 \div 2.56 = 1.054+$, and the second approximation is $\frac{2 \times 1.6 + 1.054}{3} = 1.418$, or 1.42 to three figures, or 1.4 to two figures. The difference between the first and second approximations is $1.6 - 1.4 = .2$, or two units in the second figure. Therefore, recalculate the second approximation, using 1.4 for one of the equal factors. The third factor is then equal to $2.7 \div 1.4^2 = 2.7 \div 1.96 = 1.377$, and the second approximation is $\frac{2 \times 1.4 + 1.377}{3} = 1.392+$.

Using 1.39 for one of the equal factors, the third factor is $2.7 \div 1.39^2 = 2.7 \div 1.9321 = 1.39744+$, and the third approximation is $\frac{2 \times 1.39 + 1.39744}{3} = 1.39248$, or 1.3925 to five figures. The root correct to nine figures is 1.39247665. Since the given number is wholly decimal and has no period composed entirely of ciphers, $\sqrt[3]{.0027} = .13925$. Ans.

Had 1.42 been used for one of the equal factors, the third approximation would have been 1.3930.

278. The remarks made in Art. **270** regarding the square root of perfect squares apply, with slight modifications, to the cube root of perfect cubes. If the given number is a perfect cube and contains not more than five periods, i. e., not more than $5 \times 3 = 15$ significant figures, the exact root can always be found. That the given number is a perfect cube will be suspected from the fact that the root ends in a string of 9's or 0's; that in one of the approximations the three factors become exactly equal; and that the last digit in the cube of the last figure of the root is the same as the last digit of the given number. An example will illustrate this.

EXAMPLE.— $\sqrt[3]{106{,}294{,}343.553} = ?$

SOLUTION.—The number when pointed off becomes 106'294'343.553; hence, there are three figures in the integral part of the root. The first period 106 lies between $4^3 = 64$ and $5^3 = 125$. Trying 4 for one of the equal factors, the third factor is $106 \div 4^2 = 6.62+$. Trying 5, the third factor is $106 \div 5^2 = 4.24$; hence, use 5, and obtain for the first approximation $\frac{2 \times 5 + 4.24}{3} = 4.74+$. Using two periods and 47 for one of the equal factors, the third factor is $106{,}294 \div 47^2 = 106{,}294 \div 2{,}209 = 48.11+$, and the second approximation is $\frac{2 \times 47 + 48.11}{3} = 47.37$.

To find the third approximation, two, or three, or all four periods may be used, since the first two periods contain six significant figures, and hence will give the root correct to five figures (see **c**, Art. **261**). Using the first three periods, to avoid the decimal point, and 474 for one of the equal factors, the third factor is $106{,}294{,}343 \div 474^2 = 106{,}294{,}343 \div 224{,}676 = 473.1005+$, and the third approximation is $\frac{2 \times 474 + 473.1005}{3} = 473.7001+$, or 473.70 to five figures. It will be noticed that the results obtained for the second and third approximations are alike and the last digit in $7^3 = 343$ is the same as the last significant figure of the given number; hence, it is at once suspected that the given number is a perfect power, and this is proved by cubing the root. Therefore, $\sqrt[3]{106{,}294{,}343.553} = 473.7$. Ans.

279. Square and cube root are two of the most important operations described in Arithmetic, and the student is earnestly advised to thoroughly familiarize himself with the process. Few practical problems involving mensuration arise that do not require the extraction of the square

or cube root. For instance, to find the diameter of a circle that will contain a given area requires the extraction of square root; to find the diameter of a sphere that will contain a given volume requires the extraction of cube root.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

Find the cube root of:

(*a*)	78,347.809639.	Ans.	(*a*)	42.79.
(*b*)	2.		(*b*)	1.2599+.
(*c*)	4,180,769,192.462.		(*c*)	1,611.0—.
(*d*)	.696.		(*d*)	.88621—.
(*e*)	.375.		(*e*)	.72112+.
(*f*)	513,229.783302144.		(*f*)	80.064.

TABLE METHOD OF EXTRACTING SQUARE AND CUBE ROOT.

280. By means of the table of Squares, Cubes, Fourth, and Fifth Powers, which contains the squares and cubes of numbers from 1 to 10, varying by tenths, and the first five figures of the fourth and fifth powers of the same numbers, the first three, and frequently the first four, significant figures of the square root or cube root of any number can be readily determined. The remaining figures can then be easily determined in the same manner as the third approximation in the preceding pages.

The student is advised to use the table in all cases, as it will greatly shorten his work.

281. By the aid of this table the first two significant figures of the root can be obtained directly and one more by a slight calculation. For example, suppose it is desired to find the first three significant figures of $\sqrt{5,269.73}$. Pointing off into periods and moving the decimal point so that it falls between the first and second periods, the number becomes 52.69'73; in other words, the significant figures of $\sqrt{5,269.73}$ are the same as for $\sqrt{52.6973}$. Since four figures only are given in the table, reduce the given number to four figures. The problem then becomes: find the first three figures of $\sqrt{52.70}$. Referring to the table, 52.70 lies between

SQUARES, CUBES, FOURTH, AND FIFTH POWERS.

No.	Square.	Cube.	4th Power.	5th Power.	No.	Square.	Cube.	4th Power.	5th Power.
1.0	1.00	1.000	1.0000	1.0000	5.5	30.25	166.375	915.06	5 032.8
1.1	1.21	1.331	1.4641	1.6105	5.6	31.36	175.616	983.45	5 507.3
1.2	1.44	1.728	2.0736	2.4883	5.7	32.49	185.193	1,055.6	6,016.9
1.3	1.69	2.197	2.8561	3.7129	5.8	33.64	195.112	1,131.6	6,563.6
1.4	1.96	2.744	3.8416	5.3782	5.9	34.81	205.379	1,211.7	7,149.2
1.5	2.25	3.375	5.0625	7.5938	6.0	36.00	216.000	1,296.0	7,776.0
1.6	2.56	4.096	6.5536	10.486	6.1	37.21	226.981	1,384.6	8,446.0
1.7	2.89	4.913	8.3521	14.199	6 2	38.44	238.328	1,477.6	9,161.3
1.8	3.24	5.832	10 498	18.896	6.3	39.69	250.047	1.575.3	9,924.4
1.9	3.61	6.859	13.032	24.761	6.4	40.96	262.144	1,677.7	10.737
2.0	4.00	8.000	16.000	32.000	6.5	42 25	274.625	1,785.1	11,603
2.1	4.41	9.261	19.448	40.841	6.6	43.56	287.496	1,897.5	12,523
2.2	4.84	10.643	23.426	51.536	6.7	44.89	300.763	2,015.1	13,501
2.3	5.29	12.167	27.984	64.363	6.8	46.24	314.432	2,138.1	14,539
2.4	5.76	13.824	33.178	79.626	6.9	47.61	328 509	2,266.7	15,640
2.5	6.25	15 625	39.063	97.656	7.0	49.00	343.000	2,401.0	16,807
2.6	6.76	17.576	45.698	118.81	7.1	50.41	357.911	2,541.2	18,042
2.7	7.29	19.683	53.144	143.49	7.2	51.84	373.248	2,687.4	19,349
2.8	7.84	21.952	61.466	172.10	7.3	53.29	389.017	2,839.8	20,731
2.9	8.41	24.389	70.728	205.11	7.4	54.76	405.224	2,998.7	22,190
3.0	9.00	27.000	81.000	243.00	7.5	56.25	421.875	3,164.1	23.730
3.1	9 61	29.791	92.352	286.29	7.6	57.76	438.976	3,336.2	25,355
3.2	10.24	32.768	104.86	335.54	7.7	59.29	456.533	3,515.3	27,068
3.3	10.89	35.937	118.59	391.35	7.8	60.84	474.552	3.701.5	28,873
3.4	11.56	39.304	133.63	454.35	7.9	62.41	493.039	3,895.0	30,771
3.5	12.25	42.875	150.06	525.22	8.0	64.00	512.000	4,096.0	32.768
3.6	12.96	46 656	167.96	604.66	8.1	65.61	531.441	4,304.7	34,868
3.7	13.69	50.653	187.42	693.44	8.2	67.24	551.368	4,521.2	37,074
3.8	14.44	54.872	208.51	792.35	8.3	68.89	571 787	4,745.8	39,390
3.9	15.21	59.319	231.34	902.24	8.4	70.56	592 704	4,978.7	41,821
4.0	16.00	64.000	256.00	1,024.0	8.5	72.25	614.125	5,220.1	44,371
4.1	16.81	68.921	282.58	1,158.6	8.6	73.96	636.056	5,470.1	47,043
4.2	17.64	74.088	311.17	1,306.9	8.7	75.69	658.503	5,729.0	49,842
4.3	18.49	79.507	341.88	1,470.1	8.8	77 44	681.472	5,997.0	52,773
4.4	19.36	85.184	374.81	1,649.2	8.9	79.21	704.969	6,274.2	55,841
4.5	20.25	91.125	410.06	1,845.3	9.0	81.00	729.000	6,561.0	59,049
4.6	21.16	97.336	447.75	2,059.6	9.1	82.81	753.571	6,857.5	62,403
4.7	22.09	103 823	487 97	2,293.5	9.2	84.64	778.688	7,163.9	65,908
4.8	23.04	110.592	530.84	2 548.0	9.3	86.49	804.357	7,480.5	69,569
4.9	24.01	117.649	576.48	2,824.8	9 4	88 36	830.584	7,807.5	73,390
5.0	25.00	125.000	625.00	3,125.0	9.5	90.25	857.375	8,145.1	77,378
5.1	26.01	132.651	676.52	3,450.3	9.6	92.16	884.736	8,493.5	81,537
5.2	27.04	140.608	731.16	3,802.0	9.7	94.09	912.673	8,852.9	85,873
5.3	28.09	148.877	789.05	4,182.0	9.8	96.04	941.192	9,223.7	90,392
5.4	29.16	157.464	850.31	4,591.7	9.9	98.01	970.299	9,606.0	95.099

$51.84 = 7.2^2$ and $53.29 = 7.3^2$; hence, the first two figures of the root are 7.2. Find the difference between the two numbers in the table between which the given number falls and call it the **first difference**; thus, $53.29 - 51.84 = 1.45 =$ the first difference. Find the difference between the lower number in the table and the given number and call it the **second difference**; thus, $52.70 - 51.84 = .86 =$ the second difference. Divide the second difference by the first difference, and the first figure of the quotient, if the quotient is .05 or greater, will be the third figure of the root, when reduced to one figure. If the quotient is less than .05, the third figure of the root is a cipher. Thus, $.86 \div 1.45 = .59+$, or .6 when reduced to one figure. Therefore, the first three figures of $\sqrt{52.70}$ are 7.26. Since the integral part of the given number contains two periods, there are two figures in the integral part of the root; therefore, $\sqrt{5{,}269.73} = 72.6$ to three figures. Ans.

282. The cube root is found to three significant figures in exactly the same way, as shown in the following example:

EXAMPLE.—Find the first three figures of $\sqrt[3]{.0625}$.

SOLUTION.—Pointing off and placing the decimal point between the first and second significant periods, the result is 62.500. Referring to the table, the first two figures of the root are 3.9; the first difference is $64.000 - 59.319 = 4.681$; the second difference is $62.500 - 59.319 = 3.181$; $3.181 \div 4.681 = .67+$, or .7 to one figure. Therefore, $\sqrt[3]{62.5} = 3.97$, and $\sqrt[3]{.0625} = .397$ to three significant figures. Ans.

283. Having found the first three significant figures by means of the table, find the fourth and fifth figures in the usual manner by using the first three figures in finding the third approximation.

For example, find the cube root of 126.57 to five figures. Referring to the table, the first two figures are 5.0. The first difference is $132.651 - 125.000 = 7.651$; the second difference is $126.57 - 125.000 = 1.57$; $1.57 \div 7.651 = .20+$. Hence, the first three figures are 5.02. Using 5.02 for one of the equal factors, the third factor is $126.57 \div 5.02^2$

$= 5.02253+$, and the third approximation is $\frac{2 \times 5.02 + 5.02253}{3}$ $= 5.02084+$, or $\sqrt[3]{126.57} = 5.0208$ to five figures. Ans.

284. If more than five significant figures of the square or cube root are desired, use the five figures of the third approximation for one of the equal factors and calculate the unknown factor to as many figures as are desired plus one; the next approximation will be correct to at least nine figures, if the unknown factor has been calculated to ten figures.

ROOTS OF FRACTIONS.

285. If the given number is in the form of a fraction, and it is required to find some root of it, the simplest and most exact method is to reduce the fraction to a decimal and extract the required root of the decimal. If, however, the numerator and denominator of the fraction are perfect powers, extract the required root of each separately, and write the root of the numerator for a new numerator and the root of the denominator for a new denominator.

EXAMPLE 1.—What is the square root of $\frac{9}{64}$?

SOLUTION.— $\sqrt{\frac{9}{64}} = \frac{\sqrt{9}}{\sqrt{64}} = \frac{3}{8}$. Ans.

EXAMPLE 2.—What is the square root of $\frac{5}{8}$?

SOLUTION.— $\sqrt{\frac{5}{8}} = \sqrt{.625} = .79057-$, since $\frac{5}{8} = .625$. Ans.

EXAMPLE 3.—What is the cube root of $\frac{27}{64}$?

SOLUTION.— $\sqrt[3]{\frac{27}{64}} = \frac{\sqrt[3]{27}}{\sqrt[3]{64}} = \frac{3}{4}$. Ans.

EXAMPLE 4.—What is the cube root of $\frac{1}{4}$?

SOLUTION.—Since $\frac{1}{4} = .25$, $\sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{4}} = \sqrt[3]{.25} = .62996+$. Ans.

286. Rule.—*Extract the required root of the numerator and denominator separately; or, reduce the fraction to a decimal and extract the root of the decimal.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

(*a*) $\sqrt[4]{\frac{9}{16}} = ?$
(*b*) $\sqrt[3]{\frac{27}{1728}} = ?$
(*c*) $\sqrt[3]{\frac{27}{275}} = ?$
(*d*) $\sqrt[3]{\frac{140}{138}} = ?$

Ans. (*a*) $\frac{3}{4}$. (*b*) $\frac{1}{4}$. (*c*) .41602—. (*d*) 1.6355+.

FOURTH ROOT.

287. The fourth root may be found by a method similar to that just described for extracting square and cube roots, dividing the given number into periods of four figures each and resolving the given number into four equal factors. It is generally easier and shorter, however, to extract the square root and then extract the square root of the result. For example, to extract the fourth root of 5,735,796,283.8016, which is a perfect fourth power (and consequently a perfect square, also), the square root would be extracted in the usual manner, obtaining 75,735.04. The square root of this result would then be extracted, obtaining 275.2. In other words $\sqrt[4]{5,735,796,283.8016} = \sqrt{\sqrt{5,735,796,283.8016}} = \sqrt{75,735.04} = 275.2$.

The fourth root is very seldom required and can always be found as just described.

FIFTH ROOT.

288. The fifth root is required oftener than the fourth root, but nevertheless it is seldom necessary to extract it. The method is the same in principle as that explained for cube root. The given number is divided into periods of five figures each and resolved into five equal factors; the first period may contain one, two, three, four, or five figures. As in the case of cube root, it is advisable to construct a little table giving the fifth powers of the nine digits, similar to that here given. An example will illustrate the process.

$1^5 =$	1
$2^5 =$	32
$3^5 =$	243
$4^5 =$	1,024
$5^5 =$	3,125
$6^5 =$	7,776
$7^5 =$	16,807
$8^5 =$	32,768
$9^5 =$	59,049

EXAMPLE.— $\sqrt[5]{5,186.42} = ?$

SOLUTION.—The first period 5186 lies between $5^5 = 3125$ and $6^5 = 7776$; hence, the root is 5 plus an interminable decimal. Trying 5 as one of the four equal factors and dividing the first period by their product to find the fifth factor, we have $\frac{5186}{5 \times 5 \times 5 \times 5} = 5186 \div 5^4 = 5186 \div 625 = 8.29+$. Trying 6 as one of the four equal factors, the fifth factor is $5186 \div 6^4 = 5186 \div 1296 = 4.00+$. Since the difference between 6 and 4 is less than the difference between 5 and 8.29, use 6 as one of the equal factors. Then, $5186 = 6 \times 6 \times 6 \times 6 \times 4$. The average of these factors is $\frac{6+6+6+6+4}{5} = \frac{4 \times 6 + 4}{5} = \frac{28}{5} = 5.6$, the first approximation.

Using 5.6 as one of the equal factors, the fifth factor is $5186.42 \div 5.6^4 = 5186 \div 983.4496 = 5186 \div 983.4000$ (using but four significant figures, since only three figures of the second approximation are required—see **b**, Art. **261**) $= 5.273$, and the second approximation is $\frac{4 \times 5.6 + 5.273}{5} = 5.534+$, or 5.53 to three figures.

Using 5.53 as one of the equal factors, the fifth factor is $5186.42 \div 5.53^4 = 5186.42 \div 935.191 = 5.54584+$, and the third approximation is $5.53316+$, or 5.5332 to five figures. Ans.

The exact root to seven figures is 5.533164.

289. In order that the fifth significant figure of the fifth root of a number may be correct, it is absolutely essential that the third significant figure of the second approximation be correct. In the last example, it will be noticed that the difference between the first and second approximations is $5.60 - 5.53 = .07$, which is less than one unit in the second figure, but very near to it. Had this difference been as much as 1, or had it exceeded one unit in the second figure, it would have been advisable to recalculate the second approximation.

290. The labor involved in extracting the fifth root is very much greater than that necessary to extract the cube root, chiefly on account of raising numbers to the fourth power. This labor may be shortened considerably in the following manner:

Consider any number, as 4. Now, $4^4 = 4 \times 4 \times 4 \times 4 = (4 \times 4) \times (4 \times 4) = 16 \times 16 = 256$. In other words, to

raise a number to the fourth power, square the number and then square the square. Now, the square of any number contains twice as many significant figures as the number or twice as many less 1; the cube of any number contains three times as many significant figures as the number or three times as many less one or two; the fourth power will contain four times as many or four times as many less one, two, or three; and so on. Hence, the fourth power of a number containing two figures will contain five, six, seven, or eight figures; and of one containing three figures, nine, ten, eleven, or twelve figures. In determining the fifth factor for the second approximation, only four figures of the fourth power are required, and in determining the fifth factor for the third approximation, only six figures of the fourth power are required. Therefore, any method that will enable us to dispense with unnecessary figures will lessen the work. The following method, which will also apply to any case of multiplication when only a certain definite number of figures are desired in the product, is the best we know of; it is best illustrated by an example.

EXAMPLE.—Multiply 467,295 by 634,137 and obtain six figures of the product correct.

SOLUTION.—

(*a*)		(*b*)
467295		4'6'7'2'9'5
634137		634137
2803770		2803770
140188	5	140188
18691	80	18691
467	295	467
140	1885	140
32	71065	32
2963290	49415	2963288, or 296329 to six figures.

EXPLANATION.—Instead of beginning with the last, or right-hand, digit, as in ordinary multiplication, begin with the first, or left-hand, digit of the multiplier and multiply in the ordinary manner, the product being 2,803,770. Multiply by the second digit and write the first figure obtained

in the second partial product one place to the right of the last figure of the first partial product. So proceed until all the partial products have been found, adding them to find the entire product. The result is shown at (*a*). Now, in order to have six figures of the product correct, seven figures should be obtained (see **a**, Art. **261**). It is therefore evident that all figures to the right of the vertical line in (*a*) are unnecessary. Hence, proceed as shown in (*b*). The first partial product contains seven figures—all that are required; therefore, cut off the figure 5 in the multiplicand when finding the second partial product, but multiply it by 3 in order to determine how much to carry. Thus, say mentally "three times five is fifteen," and carry 1. Then say "three times nine is twenty-seven and one is twenty-eight," etc. When multiplying by the next digit 4, cut off the second figure from right of the multiplicand, but carry the 3 that is obtained by multiplying 9 by 4, and say "four times two is eight and three is eleven." Proceeding in this manner, no figure of any of the partial products will extend beyond the place occupied by the seventh figure of the entire product.

291. The operation of division may be shortened in a similar manner to that just described for multiplication. Perform the division in the usual manner until the number of significant figures in the quotient equals the number obtained by subtracting the number of significant figures in the divisor from the number desired in the quotient plus three; then cut off one figure from the right of the divisor before finding the next figure of the quotient; cut off the second figure from the right of the divisor before finding the succeeding figure of the quotient; and so on until the quotient contains one more than the required number of figures. It is here assumed that the dividend and divisor do not contain more than one significant figure in excess of the number required in the quotient. (See **a** and **b**, Art. **261.**)

EXAMPLE.—Divide 71,346.247 by 27,846.392 and obtain five significant figures of the quotient correct.

SOLUTION.—

```
713462.20 | 27'8'4'6'.4
556928    | 2.56213, or 2.5621 to five figures.  Ans.
---------
1565340
1392320
---------
 173020
 167078
---------
   5942
   5569
---------
    373
    278
---------
     95
     83
---------
     12
```

EXPLANATION.—Since five significant figures are required in the quotient, the dividend and divisor are limited to six significant figures. The number of significant figures required in the quotient before beginning to cut off figures from the divisor is $5 + 3 - 6 = 8 - 6 = 2$; hence, before finding the third figure of the quotient, cut off the figure 4 from the right of the divisor, but multiply 4 by 6 in order to see how much to carry. Thus, say "six times four is twenty-four," and carry 2; then, say "six times six is thirty-six and two is thirty-eight," and write 8 and carry 3; and so on. Before finding the fourth figure of the quotient, cut off the next figure 6 of the divisor. The student will find it convenient to place the divisor at the right of the dividend with the quotient underneath, as shown. This arrangement saves space and brings each figure of the quotient directly under the divisor, making the multiplication easier.

292. To locate the decimal point in the quotient, the easiest way is to proceed as follows: Move the decimal point in the divisor to the right until it follows the right-hand figure; that is, make the divisor a whole number; move the decimal point in the dividend as many decimal places to the right as it was moved in the divisor, annexing ciphers if necessary. If the dividend will contain the divisor one or

more times, there will be as many figures in the integral part of the quotient as there are figures left in the dividend after finding the first remainder plus one. If the dividend will not contain the divisor, annex ciphers to follow the decimal point until the dividend contains the divisor, and the first significant figure of the quotient will then be located as many decimal places to the right of the decimal point as there were ciphers annexed. For instance, $.046 \div 21.76 = 4.6 \div 2176. = 4.600 \div 2,176. = .002+$; $4.6 \div 21.76 = 460. \div 2,176. = 460.0 \div 2,176 = .2+$; $460 \div 21.76 = 46,000. \div 2,176 = 21.+$. In the last example, $71,346.2 \div 27,846.4 = 713,462. \div 278,464. = 2+$.

293. Having shown how the work of calculation may be greatly reduced, an example is given on the following page, showing all the figures used in extracting the fifth root, each operation being numbered in the order in which it is performed.

294. When the sixth significant figure of the third approximation is 5, it is not always advisable to increase the fifth figure by one. To ascertain whether or not the fifth figure should be increased, recalculate the third approximation, using for one of the equal factors the third approximation first found, correct to *four* figures; if the sixth significant figure is then 5+, increase the fifth figure by 1.

EXAMPLE 1.— $\sqrt[5]{3.056} = ?$

SOLUTION.—Using the first two significant figures and trying 1 for the equal factors, the fifth factor is $3.1 \div 1^4 = 3.1$, and the first approximation is $\frac{4 \times 1 + 3.1}{5} = 1.42$. Since $3.1 - 1 = 2.1$ is less than 2.5 (see Remark in example referred to in Art. **293**), it is not necessary to try 2 for one of the equal factors.

$$3.056 \div 1.4^4 = .795+. \quad \frac{4 \times 1.4 + .795}{5} = 1.279+.$$

Since the difference between 1.42, the first approximation, and 1.279 the second approximation, is greater than one unit in the second figure, try 1.3 for one of the equal factors and recalculate the second approximation.

$$3.056 \div 1.3^4 = 1.069+. \quad \frac{4 \times 1.3 + 1.069}{5} = 1.253+.$$

EXAMPLE.— $\sqrt[5]{8,269} = ?$

SOLUTION.—

(1)

```
   6
   6
  --
  36
  36
 ----
 108
 216
----
1296
```

(2)

```
8269 | 1296
7776   6.38+
----
 493
 388
 ---
 105
 103
 ---
   2
```

(3)

$$\frac{4 \times 6 + 6.38}{5} = 6.07+$$

(6)

$$\frac{4 \times 6.1 + 5.974}{5} = \frac{30.374}{5} = 6.074+$$

(4)

```
   6.1
   6.1
  ----
   366
     61
  -----
  37.21
  37.21
 ------
 11163
  2604
    74
     3
 ------
 1384.4
```

(5)

```
8269.0 | 1384
6920     5.974
-----
13490
12456
-----
 1034
  968
 ----
   66
   55
   11
```

(7)

```
  6.07
  6.07
 -----
  3642
    4249
 -------
  36.8449
  36.8445
 -------
 110535
  221070
   29476
    1473
     184
 -------
 1357.553
```

(8)

```
8269.00 | 13577.55
814530    6.09112
------
 123700
 122179
 ------
   1521
   1357
   ----
    164
    135
    ---
     29
     27
     --
      2
```

(9)

$$\frac{4 \times 6.07 + 6.09112}{5} =$$

$$\frac{30.37112}{5} = 6.07422$$

$= 6.0742$ to five figures. Ans.

REMARK.—It was unnecessary to try 7 for one of the equal factors, because there was but a very little difference between the fifth factor 6.38 and one of the equal factors 6; in fact, when this difference is not greater than 2.5 units, it is unnecessary to try the next higher number for one of the equal factors. In this case the difference is $6.38 - 6 = .38$, or less than 1 unit.

Since the difference, $1.3 - 1.253 = .047$, is less than one unit in the second figure, use 1.25 for one of the equal factors in finding the third approximation.

$$3.056 \div 1.25^4 = 1.25173+. \quad \frac{4 \times 1.25 + 1.25173}{5} = 1.25034+,$$

or 1.2503 to five figures. Ans.

The exact root to seven figures is 1.250347.

EXAMPLE 2.— $\sqrt[5]{3} = ?$

SOLUTION.—Trying 1.3 for one of the equal factors (see last example), $3 \div 1.3^4 = 1.050+$. $\frac{4 \times 1.3 + 1.050}{5} = 1.25$.

Using 1.25 for one of the equal factors, the fifth factor is $3 \div 1.25^4 = 1.22879+$, and the third approximation is $\frac{4 \times 1.25 + 1.22879}{5} = 1.24575+$. Since the sixth figure is 5, it will be well to recalculate the third approximation, using 1.246 for one of the equal factors. Hence, $3 \div 1.246^4 = 1.244656+$, and the third approximation is

$$\frac{4 \times 1.246 + 1.244656}{5} = 1.245731+, \text{ or } 1.2457 \text{ to five figures. Ans.}$$

The exact root to seven figures is 1.245731.

295. The fifth root is very seldom required; the most prominent case in practice arises in connection with finding the diameter of a pipe that will discharge a required amount of water, the head and length of pipe being known. It is also required in connection with certain problems in mine ventilation. The fourth root is used even less frequently than the fifth root. Roots higher than the fifth are never required.

TABLE METHOD OF EXTRACTING THE FIFTH ROOT.

296. In exactly the same way as in the case of square and cube roots, the first three significant figures of the fifth root may be found by means of the table of the powers of numbers.

EXAMPLE.— $\sqrt[5]{238.75} = ?$

SOLUTION.—Referring to the table, the first two figures are 2.9; the first difference is $243.00 - 205.11 = 37.89$; the second difference is $238.75 - 205.11 = 33.64$; $33.64 \div 37.89 = .88+$, or .9 to one figure. Therefore, $\sqrt[5]{238.75} = 2.99$ to three figures.

297. When finding the fifth root of numbers whose first period contains but one significant figure, carry the quotient obtained by dividing the second difference by the first difference to three decimal places, and if the third figure is 5 or a greater digit, increase the second figure by 1 and add these two figures of the quotient to those previously found for the third and fourth figures of the root. Then use all four figures when finding the third approximation.

EXAMPLE.— $\sqrt[5]{3} = ?$

SOLUTION.—Referring to the table, the first two figures are 1.2; the first difference is $3.7129 - 2.4883 = 1.2246$; the second difference is $3 - 2.4883 = .5117$; $.5117 \div 1.2246 = .417+$, or .42 to two figures. Hence, assume that one of the equal factors is 1.242; the fifth factor is $3 \div 1.242^4 = 1.26076$, and the third approximation is $\frac{4 \times 1.242 + 1.26076}{5}$ $= 1.245752$. Since the sixth figure is 5, recalculate the third approximation, using the result just found correct to four figures for one of the equal factors (see Example 2, Art. **294**). The result is 1.2457. Ans.

ARITHMETIC.

(SECTION 6.)

INTRODUCTION.

The subject of ratio and proportion is one of the most useful of all the subjects that are taught in Arithmetic. The student will find frequent use for the principles treated of in the following pages, and is requested to study them with great care.

The student should carefully study the definitions, constantly referring to them from time to time as he progresses with the subject; he should note particularly those articles relating to inverse ratio and inverse proportion. The idea of inverse proportion is usually a difficult one for the student to grasp; but a careful study of Art. **330** and of the examples in Arts. **331** and **332** will make the matter clear to him.

Although some of the examples included between Arts. **311** and **334**, inclusive, may be solved by other methods than the use of proportion, all the examples included between the above articles, and those of similar nature included in the Question Paper, must be solved by applying the principles of proportion; no other method of solution will be accepted. The student should study very carefully Arts. **309, 310, 324,** and **325**; they are very important, and they should be thoroughly understood.

The subject of compound proportion as treated in ordinary textbooks on Arithmetic usually proves of considerable difficulty to the student. The method here given, while not entirely new, presents the matter in a clearer light, we believe, than any other we have ever seen.

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RATIO.

298. Suppose that it is desired to compare two numbers, say 20 and 4. If we wish to know how many times larger 20 is than 4, we divide 20 by 4 and obtain 5 for the quotient; thus, $20 \div 4 = 5$. Hence, we say that 20 is 5 times as large as 4, i. e., 20 contains 5 times as many units as 4. Again, suppose we desire to know what part of 20 is 4. We then divide 4 by 20 and obtain $\frac{1}{5}$; thus, $4 \div 20 = \frac{1}{5}$, or .2. Hence, 4 is $\frac{1}{5}$ or .2 of 20. This operation of comparing two numbers is termed *finding the ratio* of the two numbers. Ratio, then, is a comparison. It is evident that the two numbers to be compared must be expressed in the same unit; in other words, the two numbers must both be abstract numbers or concrete numbers of the same kind. For example, it would be absurd to compare 20 horses with 4 birds, or 20 horses with 4. Hence, **ratio** may be defined as a comparison between two numbers of the same kind.

299. A ratio may be *expressed* in three ways; thus, if it is desired to compare 20 and 4, and express this comparison as a ratio, it may be done as follows: $20 \div 4$; $20 : 4$, or $\frac{20}{4}$. All three are read *the ratio of 20 to 4*. The ratio of 4 to 20 would be expressed thus: $4 \div 20$; $4 : 20$, or $\frac{4}{20}$. The first method of expressing a ratio, although correct, is seldom or never used; the second form is the one oftenest met with, while the third is rapidly growing in favor, and is likely to supersede the second. The third form, called the fractional form, is preferred by modern mathematicians, and possesses great advantages to students of Algebra and of higher mathematical subjects. The second form seems to be better adapted to arithmetical subjects, and is one we shall ordinarily adopt. There is still another way of expressing a ratio, though seldom or never used in the case of a simple ratio like that given above. Instead of the colon, a straight vertical line is used; thus, $20 \mid 4$.

300. The **terms** of a ratio are the two numbers to be compared; thus, in the above ratio, 20 and 4 are the terms. When both terms are considered together, they are called a **couplet**; when considered separately, the first term is called the **antecedent**, and the second term the **consequent**. Thus, in the ratio 20 : 4, 20 and 4 form a couplet, and 20 is the antecedent, and 4 the consequent.

301. A ratio may be **direct** or **inverse**. The *direct ratio* of 20 to 4 is 20 : 4, while the *inverse ratio* of 20 to 4 is 4 : 20. The direct ratio of 4 to 20 is 4 : 20, and the inverse ratio is 20 : 4. An inverse ratio is sometimes called a **reciprocal** ratio. The **reciprocal** of a number is 1 divided by the number. Thus, the reciprocal of 17 is $\frac{1}{17}$; of $\frac{3}{8}$ is $1 \div \frac{3}{8} = \frac{8}{3}$; i.e., the reciprocal of a fraction is the fraction inverted. Hence, the inverse ratio of 20 to 4 may be expressed as 4 : 20, or as $\frac{1}{20} : \frac{1}{4}$. Both have equal values; for, $4 \div 20 = \frac{1}{5}$, and $\frac{1}{20} \div \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{20} \times \frac{4}{1} = \frac{1}{5}$.

302. The term **vary** implies a ratio. When we say that two numbers vary as some other two numbers, we mean that the ratio between the first two numbers is the same as the ratio between the other two numbers.

303. The **value** of a ratio is the result obtained by performing the division indicated. Thus, the value of the ratio 20:4 is 5, it is the quotient obtained by dividing the antecedent by the consequent.

304. By expressing the ratio in the fractional form, for example, the ratio of 20 to 4 as $\frac{20}{4}$, it is easy to see, from the laws of fractions, that if both terms be multiplied, or both divided by the same number, it will not alter the value of the ratio. Thus,

$$\frac{20}{4} = \frac{20 \times 5}{4 \times 5} = \frac{100}{20}; \text{ and } \frac{20}{4} = \frac{20 \div 4}{4 \div 4} = \frac{5}{1}.$$

305. It is also evident, from the laws of fractions, that multiplying the antecedent or dividing the consequent multiplies the ratio; and dividing the antecedent or multiplying the consequent divides the ratio.

306. When a ratio is expressed in words, as the ratio of 20 to 4, the first number named is always regarded as the antecedent and the second as the consequent, without regard to whether the ratio itself is direct or inverse. *When not otherwise specified, all ratios are understood to be direct.* To express an inverse ratio, the simplest way of doing it is to express it as if it were a direct ratio, with the first number named as the antecedent, and then transpose the antecedent to the place occupied by the consequent and the consequent to the place occupied by the antecedent; or if expressed in the fractional form, invert the fraction. Thus, to express the inverse ratio of 20 to 4, first write it 20:4, and then, transposing the terms, as 4 : 20; or as $\frac{20}{4}$, and then inverting as $\frac{4}{20}$. Or, the reciprocals of the numbers may be taken, as explained above. To **invert** a ratio is to transpose its terms.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

307. What is the value of the ratio of

(*a*)	98 to 49?	Ans. (*a*)	2.
(*b*)	\$45 to \$9?	(*b*)	5.
(*c*)	$6\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$?	(*c*)	$12\frac{1}{2}$.
(*d*)	3.5 to 4.5?	(*d*)	$.77\frac{7}{9}$.
(*e*)	The inverse ratio of 76 to 19?	(*e*)	$\frac{1}{4}$.
(*f*)	The inverse ratio of 49 to 98?	(*f*)	2.
(*g*)	The inverse ratio of 18 to 24?	(*g*)	$1\frac{1}{3}$.
(*h*)	The inverse ratio of 9 to 15?	(*h*)	$1\frac{2}{3}$.
(*i*)	The ratio of 10 to 3, multiplied by 3?	(*i*)	10.
(*j*)	The ratio of 35 to 49, multiplied by 7?	(*j*)	5.
(*k*)	The ratio of 18 to 64, divided by 9?	(*k*)	$\frac{1}{32}$.
(*l*)	The ratio of 14 to 28, divided by 5?	(*l*)	$\frac{1}{10}$.

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308. Instead of expressing the value of a ratio by a single number, as above, it is customary to express it by

means of another ratio in which the consequent is 1. Thus, suppose that it is desired to find the ratio of the weights of two pieces of iron, one weighing 45 pounds and the other weighing 30 pounds. The ratio of the heavier to the lighter is then 45 : 30, an inconvenient expression. Using the fractional form, we have $\frac{45}{30}$. Dividing both terms by 30, the consequent, we obtain $\frac{1\frac{1}{2}}{1}$ or $1\frac{1}{2} : 1$. This is the same result as obtained above, for $1\frac{1}{2} \div 1 = 1\frac{1}{2}$, and $45 \div 30 = 1\frac{1}{2}$.

309. A ratio may be squared, cubed, or raised to any power, or any root of it may be taken. Thus, if the ratio of two numbers is 105 : 63, and it is desired to cube this ratio, the cube may be expressed as $105^3 : 63^3$. That this is correct is readily seen; for, expressing the ratio in the fractional form, it becomes $\frac{105}{63}$, and the cube is $\left(\frac{105}{63}\right)^3 = \frac{105^3}{63^3} = 105^3 : 63^3$. Also, if it is desired to extract the cube root of the ratio $105^3 : 63^3$, it may be done by simply dividing the exponents by 3, obtaining 105 : 63. This may be proved in the same way as in the case of cubing the ratio. Thus, $105^3 : 63^3 = \left(\frac{105}{63}\right)^3$, and $\sqrt[3]{\left(\frac{105}{63}\right)^3} = \frac{105}{63} = 105 : 63$.

310. Since $\left(\frac{105}{63}\right)^3 = \left(\frac{5}{3}\right)^3$, it follows that $105^3 : 63^3 = 5^3 : 3^3$ (this expression is read: the ratio of 105 cubed to 63 cubed equals the ratio of 5 cubed to 3 cubed), it follows that the antecedent and consequent may always be multiplied or divided by the same number, irrespective of any indicated powers or roots, without altering the value of the ratio. Thus, $24^2 : 18^2 = 4^2 : 3^2$. For, performing the operations indicated by the exponents, $24^2 = 576$ and $18^2 = 324$. Hence, $576 : 324 = 1\frac{7}{9}$ or $1\frac{7}{9} : 1$. Also, $4^2 = 16$ and $3^2 = 9$; hence, $16 : 9 = 1\frac{7}{9}$ or $1\frac{7}{9} : 1$, the same result as before. Also, $24^2 : 18^2 = \frac{24^2}{18^2} = \left(\frac{24}{18}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^2 = \frac{4^2}{3^2} = 4^2 : 3^2$.

The statement may be proved for roots in the same manner. Thus, $\sqrt[3]{24^3} : \sqrt[3]{18^3} = \sqrt[3]{4^3} : \sqrt[3]{3^3}$. For the $\sqrt[3]{24^3} = 24$ and $\sqrt[3]{18^3} = 18$; and, $24 : 18 = 1\frac{1}{3}$ or $1\frac{1}{3} : 1$. Also, $\sqrt[3]{4^3} = 4$ and $\sqrt[3]{3^3} = 3$; $4 : 3 = 1\frac{1}{3}$ or $1\frac{1}{3} : 1$.

NOTE.—If the numbers composing the antecedent and consequent have different exponents, or if different roots of those numbers are indicated, the operations described in Art. **310** cannot be performed. This is evident; for, consider the ratio $4^2 : 8^3$. When expressed in the fractional form, it becomes $\frac{4^2}{8^3}$, which cannot be expressed either as $\left(\frac{4}{8}\right)^2$ or as $\left(\frac{4}{8}\right)^3$, and, hence, cannot be reduced as described above.

PROPORTION.

311. **Proportion** is an equality of ratios, the equality being indicated by the double colon (::) or by the sign of equality (=). Thus, to write in the form of a proportion the two equal ratios, 8 : 4 and 6 : 3, which both have the same value 2, we may employ one of the three following forms:

$$8 : 4 :: 6 : 3 \qquad (1)$$
$$8 : 4 = 6 : 3 \qquad (2)$$
$$\frac{8}{4} = \frac{6}{3} \qquad (3)$$

312. The first form is the one most extensively used, by reason of its having been exclusively employed in all the older works on mathematics. The second and third forms are being adopted by all modern writers on mathematical subjects, and, in time, will probably entirely supersede the first form. In this paper we shall adopt the second form, unless some statement can be made clearer by using the third form.

313. A proportion may be *read* in two ways. The old way to read the above proportion was—*8 is to 4 as 6 is to 3;* the new way is—*the ratio of 8 to 4 equals the ratio of 6 to 3.* The student may read it either way, but we recommend the latter.

314. Each ratio of a proportion is termed a **couplet.** In the above proportion, 8 : 4 is a couplet, and so is 6 : 3.

315. The numbers forming the proportion are called **terms**; and they are numbered consecutively from left to right, thus:

first second third fourth

$$8 : 4 = 6 : 3$$

Hence, in any proportion, the ratio of the first term to the second term equals the ratio of the third term to the fourth term.

316. The first and fourth terms of a proportion are called the **extremes**, and the second and third terms, the **means**. Thus, in the foregoing proportion, 8 and 3 are the extremes and 4 and 6 are the means.

317. A **direct proportion** is one in which both couplets are direct ratios.

318. An **inverse proportion** is one which requires one of the couplets to be expressed as an inverse ratio. Thus, 8 is to 4 inversely as 3 is to 6 must be written $8 : 4 = 6 : 3$; i. e., the second ratio (couplet) must be inverted.

319. Proportion forms one of the most useful sections of Arithmetic. In our grandfathers' Arithmetics, it was called "The rule of three."

320. Rule I.—*In any proportion, the product of the extremes equals the product of the means.*

Thus, in the proportion,

$$17 : 51 = 14 : 42.$$

$17 \times 42 = 51 \times 14$, since both products equal 714.

321. Rule II.—*The product of the extremes divided by either mean gives the other mean.*

EXAMPLE.—What is the third term of the proportion $17 : 51 = \quad : 42$?

SOLUTION.—Applying rule II, $17 \times 42 = 714$, and $714 \div 51 = 14$. Ans.

322. Rule III.—*The product of the means divided by either extreme gives the other extreme.*

EXAMPLE.—What is the first term of the proportion $\quad : 51 = 14 : 42$?

SOLUTION.—Applying rule III, $51 \times 14 = 714$, and $714 \div 42 = 17$. Ans.

323. When stating a proportion in which one of the terms is unknown, represent the missing term by a letter, as x. Thus, the last example would be written,

$$x : 51 = 14 : 42$$

and for the value of x we have $x = \frac{51 \times 14}{42} = 17$.

324. If the same (addition and subtraction excepted) operations be performed upon *all* of the terms of a proportion, the proportion is not thereby destroyed. In other words, if all of the terms of a proportion be (1) multiplied or (2) divided by the same number; (3) if all the terms be raised to the same power; if (4) the same root of all the terms be taken, or (5) if both couplets be inverted, the proportion still holds. We will prove these statements by a numerical example, and the student can satisfy himself by other similar ones. The fractional form will be used, as it is better suited to the purpose. Consider the proportion $8 : 4 = 6 : 3$. Expressing it in the third form, it becomes $\frac{8}{4} = \frac{6}{3}$. What we are to prove is that, if any of the five operations enumerated above be performed upon all of the terms of this proportion, the first fraction will still equal the second fraction.

1. Multiplying all the terms by any number, say 7, $\frac{8 \times 7}{4 \times 7} = \frac{6 \times 7}{3 \times 7}$; or $\frac{56}{28} = \frac{42}{21}$. Now $\frac{56}{28}$ evidently equals $\frac{42}{21}$, since the value of either ratio is 2, and the same is true of the original proportion.

2. Dividing all the terms by any number, say 7, $\frac{8 \div 7}{4 \div 7} = \frac{6 \div 7}{3 \div 7}$; or $\frac{\frac{8}{7}}{\frac{4}{7}} = \frac{\frac{6}{7}}{\frac{3}{7}}$. But $\frac{8}{7} \div \frac{4}{7} = 2$, and $\frac{6}{7} \div \frac{3}{7} = 2$ also, the same as in the original proportion.

3. Raising all the terms to the same power, say the cube, $\frac{8^3}{4^3} = \frac{6^3}{3^3}$. This is evidently true, since $\frac{8^3}{4^3} = \left(\frac{8}{4}\right)^3 = 2^3 = 8$, and $\frac{6^3}{3^3} = \left(\frac{6}{3}\right)^3 = 2^3 = 8$ also.

4. Extracting the same root of all the terms, say the cube root, $\frac{\sqrt[3]{8}}{\sqrt[3]{4}} = \frac{\sqrt[3]{6}}{\sqrt[3]{3}}$. It is evident that this is likewise true, since $\frac{\sqrt[3]{8}}{\sqrt[3]{4}} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{8}{4}} = \sqrt[3]{2}$, and $\frac{\sqrt[3]{6}}{\sqrt[3]{3}} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{6}{3}} = \sqrt[3]{2}$ also.

5. Inverting both couplets, $\frac{4}{8} = \frac{3}{6}$, which is true, since both equal $\frac{1}{2}$.

325. If both terms of either couplet be multiplied or both divided by the same number, the proportion is not destroyed. This should be evident from the preceding article, and also from Art. **304.** Hence, in any proportion, equal factors may be canceled from the terms of a couplet, before applying rules II or III. Thus, the proportion $45 : 9 = x : 7.1$, we may divide both terms of the first couplet by 9 (that is, cancel 9 from both terms), obtaining $5 : 1 = x : 7.1$, whence $x = 7.1 \times 5 \div 1 = 35.5$. (See note in Art. **310.**)

326. The principle of all calculations in proportion is this: *Three of the terms are always given, and the remaining one is to be found.*

327. EXAMPLE.—If 4 men can earn $25 in one week, how much can 12 men earn in the same time?

SOLUTION.—The required term must bear the same relation to the given term of the same kind as one of the remaining terms bears to the other remaining term. We can then form a proportion by which the required term may be found.

The first question the student must ask himself in every calculation by proportion is:

"What is it I want to find?"

In this case it is dollars. We have two sets of men, one set earning $25, and we want to know how many dollars the other set earns. It is evident that the *amount* 12 men earn bears the same relation to the *amount* that 4 men earn as 12 men bears to 4 men. Hence, we have the proportion, the amount 12 men earn is to $25 as 12 men is to 4 men; or, since either extreme equals the product of the means divided by the other extreme, we have

The amount 12 men earn : $25 = 12 men : 4 men,

or the amount 12 men earn $= \frac{\$25 \times 12}{4} = \$75$. Ans.

Since it matters not which place x or the required term occupies, the problem could be stated as any of the following forms, the value of x being the same in each:

(*a*) \$25 : the amount 12 men earn = 4 men : 12 men; or the amount 12 men earn $= \frac{\$25 \times 12}{4}$, or \$75, since either mean equals the product of the extremes divided by the other mean.

(*b*) 4 men : 12 men = \$25 : the amount 12 men earn; or the amount that 12 men earn $= \frac{\$25 \times 12}{4}$, or \$75, since either extreme equals the product of the means divided by the other extreme.

(*c*) 12 men : 4 men = the amount 12 men earn : \$25; or the amount that 12 men earn $= \frac{\$25 \times 12}{4}$, or \$75, since either mean equals the product of the extremes divided by the other mean.

328. If the proportion is an inverse one, first form it as though it were a direct proportion, and then invert one of the couplets.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

329. Find the value of x in each of the following:

(*a*)	\$16 : \$64 :: x : \$4.	Ans.	(*a*) $x =$ \$1.
(*b*)	x : 85 :: 10 : 17.		(*b*) $x = 50$.
(*c*)	24 : x :: 15 : 40.		(*c*) $x = 64$.
(*d*)	18 : 94 :: 2 : x.		(*d*) $x = 10\frac{4}{9}$.
(*e*)	\$75 : \$100 = x : 100.		(*e*) $x = 75$.
(*f*)	15 pwt. : x = 21 : 10.		(*f*) $x = 7\frac{1}{7}$ pwt.
(*g*)	x : 75 yd. = \$15 : \$5.		(*g*) $x = 225$ yd.

1. If 75 pounds of lead cost \$2.10, what would 125 pounds cost at the same rate? Ans. \$3.50.

2. If A does a piece of work in 4 days and B does it in 7 days, how long will it take A to do what B does in 63 days? Ans. 36 days.

3. The circumferences of any two circles are to each other as their diameters. If the circumference of a circle 7 inches in diameter is 22 inches, what will be the circumference of a circle 31 inches in diameter? Ans. $97\frac{3}{7}$ inches.

INVERSE PROPORTION.

330. In Art. **318**, an inverse proportion was defined as one which required one of the couplets to be expressed as an inverse ratio. Sometimes the word *inverse* occurs in the

statement of the example; in such cases the proportion can be written directly, merely inverting one of the couplets. But it frequently happens that only by carefully studying the conditions of the example can it be ascertained whether the proportion is direct or inverse. When in doubt, the student can always satisfy himself as to whether the proportion is direct or inverse by first ascertaining what is required, and stating the proportion as a direct proportion. Then, in order that the proportion may be true, if the first term is smaller than the second term, the third term must be smaller than the fourth; or if the first term is larger than the second term, the third term must be larger than the fourth term. Keeping this in mind, the student can always tell whether the required term will be larger or smaller than the other term of the couplet to which the required term belongs. Having determined this, the student then refers to the example, and ascertains from its conditions whether the required term is to be larger or smaller than the other term of the same kind. If the two determinations agree, the proportion is direct; otherwise, it is inverse, and one of the couplets must be inverted.

331. EXAMPLE.—If A's *rate* of doing work is to B's as 5 : 7, and A does a piece of work in 42 days, in what time will B do it?

SOLUTION.—The required term is the number of days it will take B to do the work. Hence, stating as a direct proportion,

$$5 : 7 = 42 : x.$$

Now, since 7 is greater than 5, x will be greater than 42. But, referring to the statement of the example, it is easy to see that B works faster than A; hence it will take B a less number of days to do the work than A. Therefore, the proportion is an inverse one, and should be stated

$$5 : 7 = x : 42,$$

from which $x = \frac{5 \times 42}{7} = 30$ days. Ans.

Had the example been stated thus: The time that A requires to do a piece of work is to the time that B requires, as 5 : 7; A can do it in 42 days, in what time can B do it? it is evident that it would take B a longer time to do the work than it would A; hence, x would be greater than 42, and the proportion would be direct, the value of x being $\frac{7 \times 42}{5}$ $= 58.8$ days.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

332. Solve the following:

1. If a pump which discharges 4 gal. of water per min. can fill a tank in 20 hr., how long will it take a pump discharging 12 gal. per min. to fill it? Ans. $6\frac{2}{3}$ hr.

2. If a pump discharges 90 gal. of water in 20 hr., in what time will it discharge 144 gal.? Ans. 32 hr.

3. The weight of any gas (the volume and pressure remaining the same) varies inversely as the absolute temperature. If a certain quantity of some gas weighs 2.927 lb. when the absolute temperature is 525°, what will the same volume of gas weigh when the absolute temperature is 600°, the pressure remaining the same? Ans. 2.561+ lb.

4. If 50 cu. ft. of air weigh 4.2 pounds when the absolute temperature is 562°, what will be the absolute temperature when the same volume weighs 5.8 pounds, the pressure being the same in both cases? Ans. 407°, very nearly.

POWERS AND ROOTS IN PROPORTION.

333. It was stated in Art. **309** that a ratio could be raised to any power or any root of it might be taken. A proportion is frequently stated in such a manner that one of the couplets must be raised to some power or some root of it must be taken. In all such cases, both terms of the couplet so affected *must be raised to the same power or the same root of both terms must be taken.*

334. EXAMPLE.—Knowing that the weight of a sphere varies as the cube of its diameter, what is the weight of a sphere 6 inches in diameter if a sphere 8 inches in diameter of the same material weighs 180 pounds?

SOLUTION.—This is evidently a direct proportion. Hence, we write

$$6^3 : 8^3 = x : 180.$$

Dividing both terms of the first couplet by 2^3 (see Art. **310**),

$$3^3 : 4^3 = x : 180, \text{ or } 27 : 64 = x : 180;$$

whence, $x = \frac{27 \times 180}{64} = 75\frac{15}{16}$ pounds. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—A sphere 8 inches in diameter weighs 180 pounds· what is the diameter of another sphere of the same material which weighs $75\frac{15}{16}$ pounds?

SOLUTION.—Since the weights of any two spheres are to each other as the cubes of their diameters, we have the proportion

$$180 : 75\tfrac{15}{16} = 8^3 : x^3;$$

x, the required term, must be cubed, because the other term of the couplet is cubed (see Art. **333**). But, $8^3 = 512$; hence,

$$180 : 75\tfrac{15}{16} = 512 : x^3, \text{ or } x^3 = \frac{75\frac{15}{16} \times 512}{180} = 216;$$

whence, $x = \sqrt[3]{216} = 6$ inches. Ans.

335. Since taking the same root of all of the terms of a proportion does not change its value (Art. **324**), the above example might have been solved by extracting the cube root of all of the numbers, thus obtaining $\sqrt[3]{180} : \sqrt[3]{75\frac{15}{16}} = 8 : x$; whence,

$$x = \frac{8 \times \sqrt[3]{75\frac{15}{16}}}{\sqrt[3]{180}} = 8 \times \sqrt[3]{\frac{75\frac{15}{16}}{180}} = 8\sqrt[3]{\frac{1,215}{2,880}} = 8\sqrt[3]{\frac{27}{64}} =$$

$8 \times \frac{3}{4} = 6$ inches. The process, however, is longer and is not so direct, and the first method is to be preferred.

336. If two cylinders have *equal* volumes, but different diameters, the diameters are to each other inversely as the square roots of their lengths. Hence, if it is desired to find the diameter of a cylinder that is to be 15 inches long, and which shall have the same volume as one that is 9 inches in diameter and 12 inches long, we write the proportion

$$9 : x = \sqrt{15} : \sqrt{12}.$$

Since neither 12 nor 15 are perfect squares, we square all of the terms (Arts. **335** and **324**) and obtain

$$81 : x^2 = 15 : 12; \text{ whence } x^2 = \frac{81 \times 12}{15} = 64.8,$$

and $x = \sqrt{64.8} = 8.05$ inches = diameter of 15-inch cylinder.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

337. Solve the following examples:

1. The intensity of light varies inversely as the square of the distance from the source of light. If a gas jet illuminates an object 30 feet away with a certain distinctness, how much brighter will the object be at a distance of 20 feet? Ans. $2\frac{1}{4}$ times as bright.

2. In the last example, suppose that the object had been 40 feet from the gas jet; how bright would it have been compared with its brightness at 30 feet from the gas jet? Ans. $\frac{9}{16}$ as bright.

3. When comparing one light with another, the intensities of their illuminating powers vary as the squares of their distances from the

source. If a man can just distinguish the time indicated by his watch, 50 feet from a certain light, at what distance could he distinguish the time from a light 3 times as powerful? Ans. 86.6+ feet.

4. The quantity of air flowing through a mine varies directly as the square root of the pressure. If 60,000 cubic feet of air flow per minute when the pressure is 2.8 pounds per square foot, how much will flow when the pressure is 3.6 pounds per square foot?

Ans. 68,034 cu.ft. per min., nearly.

5. In the last example, suppose that 70,000 cubic feet per minute had been required; what would be the pressure necessary for this quantity? Ans. 3.81+ lb. per sq. ft.

CAUSES AND EFFECTS.

338. Many examples in proportion may be more easily solved by using the principle of *cause and effect.* That which may be regarded as producing a change or alteration in something, or as accomplishing something, may be called a **cause,** and the change or alteration, or thing accomplished, is the **effect.**

339. *Like causes produce like effects.* Hence, when two causes of the same kind produce two effects of the same kind, the ratio of the causes equals the ratio of the effects; in other words, the first cause is to the second cause as the first effect is to the second effect. Thus, in the question, if 3 men can lift 1,400 pounds, how many pounds can 7 men lift? we call 3 men and 7 men the *causes* (since they accomplish something, viz., the lifting of the weight), the number of pounds lifted, viz., 1,400 pounds and x pounds, are the effects. If we call 3 men the first cause, 1,400 pounds is the first effect; 7 men is the second cause, and x pounds is the second effect. Hence, we may write

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \textit{1st cause} & & \textit{2d cause} & & \textit{1st effect} & & \textit{2d effect} \\ 3 & : & 7 & = & 1{,}400 & : & x, \end{array}$$

whence $x = \dfrac{7 \times 1{,}400}{3} = 3{,}266\frac{2}{3}$ pounds.

340. The principle of cause and effect is extremely useful in the solution of examples in compound proportion, as we shall now show.

COMPOUND PROPORTION.

341. All the cases of proportion so far considered have been cases of **simple proportion**; i. e., each term has been composed of but one number. There are many cases, however, in which two or all of the terms have more than one number in them; all such cases belong to **compound proportion.** In all examples in compound proportion, both causes or both effects or all four consist of more than two numbers. We will illustrate this by an

EXAMPLE.—If 40 men earn $1,280 in 16 days, how much will 36 men earn in 31 days?

SOLUTION.—Since 40 men earn something, 40 men is a cause, and since they take 16 days in which to earn something, 16 days is also a cause. For the same reason, 36 men and 31 days are also causes. The effects, that which is earned, are 1,280 dollars and x dollars. Then, 40 men and 16 days make up the first cause, and 36 men and 31 days make up the second cause. $1,280 is the first effect and $$x$ is the second effect. Hence, we write

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \textit{1st cause} & & \textit{2d cause} & & \textit{1st effect} \quad \textit{2d effect} \\ \begin{matrix}40\\16\end{matrix} & : & \begin{matrix}36\\31\end{matrix} & = & 1{,}280 \ : \ x \end{array}$$

Now, instead of using the colon to express the ratio, we shall use the vertical line (see Art. **299**), and the above becomes

$$\begin{matrix}40\\16\end{matrix} \left| \begin{matrix}36\\31\end{matrix} \right. = 1{,}280 \left| \ x. \right.$$

In the last expression, the product of all of the numbers included between the vertical lines must equal the product of all the numbers without them; i. e., $36 \times 31 \times 1{,}280 = 40 \times 16 \times x$.

$$\text{Or } x = \frac{36 \times 31 \times \overset{2}{\cancel{1{,}280}}}{\cancel{40} \times \cancel{16}} = \$2{,}232. \quad \textbf{Ans.}$$

342. The above might have been solved by canceling factors of the numbers in the original proportion. For if any number within the lines has a factor common to any number without the lines, that factor may be canceled from both numbers. Thus, 16 is contained in

$$\begin{matrix}\cancel{40}\\\cancel{16}\end{matrix} \left| \begin{matrix}36\\31\end{matrix} \right. = \overset{2}{\cancel{1{,}280}} \left| \ x, \right.$$

1,280, 80 times. Cancel 16 and 1,280, and write 80 above 1,280. 40 is contained in 80, 2 times. Cancel 40 and 80,

and write 2 above 80. Now, since there are no more numbers that can be canceled, $x = 36 \times 31 \times 2 = \$2{,}232$, the same result as was obtained in the last article.

343. Rule.—*Write all the numbers forming the first cause in a vertical column, and draw a vertical line; on the other side of this line write in a vertical column all of the numbers forming the second cause. Write the sign of equality to the right of the second column, and on the right of this form a third column of the numbers composing the first effect, drawing a vertical line to the right; on the other side of this line, write, for a fourth column, the numbers composing the second effect. There must be as many numbers in the second cause as in the first cause, and in the second effect as in the first effect; hence, if any term is wanting, write x in its place. Multiply together all of the numbers within the vertical lines, and also all those without the lines (canceling previously, if possible), and divide the product of those numbers which do not contain x by the product of the others in which x occurs, and the result will be the value of x.*

344. Example.—If 40 men can dig a ditch 720 feet long, 5 feet wide and 4 feet deep in a certain time, how long a ditch 6 feet deep and 3 feet wide could 24 men dig in the same time?

Solution.—Here 40 men and 24 men are the causes and the two ditches are the effects. Hence,

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \cancel{40} & 24 \\ & \\ & \\ & \end{array} = \begin{array}{c|c} \cancel{3} & x \\ \cancel{18} & \cancel{3} \\ \cancel{720} & \\ 5 & \\ 4 & \end{array} \text{ whence, } x = 24 \times 5 \times 4 = 480 \text{ feet. Ans.}$$

345. Example.—The volume of a cylinder varies directly as its length and directly as the square of its diameter. If the volume of a cylinder 10 inches in diameter and 20 inches long is 1,570.8 cubic inches, what is the volume of another cylinder 16 inches in diameter and 24 inches long?

Solution.—In this example, either the dimensions or the volumes may be considered the causes; say we take the dimensions for the causes. Then, squaring the diameters,

$$\begin{array}{c|c} 10^2 & 16^2 \\ 20 & 24 \end{array} = 1{,}570.8 \left| \; x, \text{ or } \begin{array}{c|c} 100 & 256 \\ \cancel{20} & \cancel{24} \\ \cancel{5} & 6 \end{array} = 1{,}570.8 \right| \; x;$$

whence, $x = \dfrac{256 \times 6 \times 1{,}570.8}{5 \times 100} = 4{,}825.4976$ cubic inches. Ans.

346. EXAMPLE.—If a block of granite 8 ft. long, 5 ft. wide and 3 ft. thick weighs 7,200 lb., what will be the weight of a block of granite 12 ft. long, 8 ft. wide and 5 ft. thick?

SOLUTION.—Taking the weights as the effects, we have

$$\begin{array}{c|c|l} \cancel{8} & \overset{4}{\cancel{12}} & \\ \cancel{5} & \cancel{8} = 7{,}200 & x, \text{ or } x = 4 \times 7{,}200 = 28{,}800 \text{ pounds. Ans.} \\ \cancel{3} & \cancel{5} & \end{array}$$

347. EXAMPLE.—If 12 compositors in 30 days of 10 hours each set up 25 sheets of 16 pages each, 32 lines to the page, in how many days 8 hours long can 18 compositors set up, in the same type, 64 sheets of 12 pages each, 40 lines to the page?

SOLUTION.—Here compositors, days, and hours compose the causes, and sheets, pages, and lines the effects. Hence,

$$\begin{array}{c|ccc|l} 8 & \cancel{8} & & \cancel{5} & 2 \\ \cancel{12} & \cancel{18} & & \cancel{25} & \cancel{64} \\ & & & \overset{4}{} & \\ \cancel{30} & x & = & \cancel{18} & \cancel{12}, \text{ or } x = 8 \times 10 \times 2 = 60 \text{ days. Ans.} \\ \cancel{6} & & & & \overset{4}{\cancel{4}} \\ 10 & \cancel{8} & & \cancel{32} & \cancel{40} \\ & & & & \cancel{5} \end{array}$$

348. In examples stated like that in Art. **345**, should an inverse proportion occur, write the various numbers as in the preceding examples, and then transpose those numbers which are said to vary inversely from one side of the vertical line to the other side.

EXAMPLE.—The centrifugal force of a revolving body varies directly as its weight, as the square of its velocity and inversely as the radius of the circle described by the center of the body. If the centrifugal force of a body weighing 15 pounds is 187 pounds when the body revolves in a circle having a radius of 12 inches, with a velocity of 20 feet per second, what will be the centrifugal force of the same body when the radius is increased to 18 inches and the speed is increased to 24 feet per second?

SOLUTION.—Calling the centrifugal force the effect, we have,

$$\begin{array}{c|c|c|l} 15 & 15 & & \\ 20^2 & 24^2 & = 187 & x. \\ 12 & 18 & & \end{array}$$

Transposing 12 and 18 (since the radii are to vary inversely) and squaring 20 and 24,

$$\begin{array}{c|c|l} \cancel{15} & \cancel{15} & \\ & 2 & \\ 25 & \cancel{36} = 187 & x, \text{ or } x = \dfrac{12 \times 2 \times 187}{25} = 179.52 \text{ pounds. Ans.} \\ \cancel{400} & \cancel{576} & \\ \cancel{15} & 12 & \end{array}$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

349. Solve the following by compound proportion:

1. If 12 men dig a trench 40 rods long in 24 days of 10 hours each how many rods can 16 men dig in 18 days of 9 hours each?

Ans. 36 rods.

2. If a piece of iron 7 ft. long, 4 in. wide, and 6 in. thick weighs 600 lb., how much will a piece of iron weigh that is 16 ft. long, 8 in. wide and 4 in. thick? Ans. 1,828⅔ lb.

3. If 24 men can build a wall 72 rods long, 6 feet wide, and 5 feet high in 60 days of 10 hours each, how many days will it take 32 men to build a wall 96 rods long, 4 feet wide and 8 feet high, working 8 hours a day? Ans. 80 days.

4. The horsepower of an engine varies as the mean effective pressure, as the piston speed and as the square of the diameter of the cylinder. If an engine having a cylinder 14 inches in diameter develops 112 horsepower when the mean effective pressure is 48 pounds per square inch and the piston speed is 500 feet per minute, what horsepower will another engine develop if the cylinder is 16 inches in diameter, piston speed is 600 feet per minute, and mean effective pressure is 56 pounds per square inch? Ans. 204.8 horsepower.

5. Referring to the example in Art. **345**, what will be the volume of a cylinder 20 inches in diameter and 24 inches long?

Ans. 7,539.84 cubic inches.

6. Knowing that the product of $3 \times 5 \times 7 \times 9$ is 945, what is the product of $6 \times 15 \times 14 \times 36$? Ans. 45,360.

ALGEBRA.

350. In arithmetic, numbers are represented by the figures 1, 2, 3, 4, etc. There is no reason, however, why numbers may not be represented by other symbols, as letters, if rules are provided for their use.

351. In algebra, numbers are represented both by figures and letters. It will be seen later that the use of letters often simplifies the solution of examples, and shortens calculations.

352. The principal advantage of letters is that they are general in their meaning. Thus, unlike figures, the letter a does not stand for the number one, the letter b for two, c for three, etc., but *any* letter may be taken to represent *any* number, it being only necessary that a letter shall always stand for the same number *in the same example.*

353. To illustrate this difference between letters and figures, consider the following example: If a person exchanges 10 books worth $3 per volume for cloth at $2 per yard, how many yards will he obtain? A rule for solving, not only this example, but all others of the same kind, would be to multiply the number of books by the price per volume, and to divide the result by the price of the cloth. This rule is *general*, because it tells what to do with the number of books, and the prices of the books and cloth, *whatever they may be.*

Another and more concise way of stating the rule is to use letters. Thus:

Let a = the number of books,
b = the price per volume,
c = the price of the cloth,
and d = the number of yards of cloth.

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Then, according to the rule,

$$\frac{\text{number of books} \times \text{price per volume}}{\text{price of cloth}} = \text{number of yards of}$$

cloth, or $$\frac{a \times b}{c} = d.$$

In the example in question, $a = 10$, $b = 3$, and $c = 2$. Hence, writing for a, b, and c their values, 10, 3, and 2, d, the number of yards, $= \frac{10 \times 3}{2} = 15$. Here the expression $\frac{10 \times 3}{2}$ corresponds to $\frac{a \times b}{c}$, but this difference is to be noticed: $\frac{10 \times 3}{2}$ applies only to *this* example, and by performing the operations indicated only one answer can be obtained, while $\frac{a \times b}{c}$ is *general* in its application, in the same way that the rule previously given is general. That is, while a, b, and c stand for the numbers 10, 3, and 2 in *this* example, they may stand for other numbers in *another* example; hence, by writing their values in place of the letters, and performing the operations indicated, the answer to any example of the same kind may be obtained. Consequently, while figures or combinations of figures always represent the same numbers, letters are more general, and may represent any numbers, according to the conditions of the example.

354. An **equation** is a statement of equality between two expressions. Thus, $x + y = 8$ is an equation, and means that the sum of the numbers represented by x and y equals 8. Examples are solved in algebra by the aid of equations in which numbers are represented both by letters and figures. An idea of the method of solution may be had from the following simple example: If an iron rail 30 feet long is cut in two so that one part is four times as long as the other, how long is the shorter part?

SOLUTION.—Since any letter may represent any number,
Let $x =$ the length of the shorter part.
Then, $4 \times x$ (written $4x$) $=$ the length of the longer part.

But the sum of the two parts must equal the total length, 30 feet.

Hence, $x + 4x = 30$

Adding x and $4x$, $5x = 30$

Whence, dividing by 5, $x = 6$ ft. Ans.

355. Another application of equations is made in the use of formulas. A **formula** is a statement of a general rule, abridged by means of symbols. In Art. **353**, the expression $\frac{a \times b}{c} = d$ is a formula. All formulas are equations, and the same rules apply to both. An equation is not called a formula, however, unless it is a statement of a general rule. In modern technical works, the rules for solving examples are generally given by formulas, and it is important to understand how to apply them.

356. **Algebra** treats of the equation and its use. Since the use of equations involves the use of letters, it will be necessary to take up addition, subtraction, multiplication, involution, evolution, etc., where letters are used, before considering equations.

NOTATION.

357. The term **quantity** is used to designate any number that is to be subjected to mathematical processes. A quantity is strictly a concrete number, as 6 books, 5 pounds, 10 yards. *Symbols* used to *represent* numbers, or expressions containing two or more such symbols, as a, x, bd, 10, $(c + 12)$, etc., are often called quantities, the term being a convenient one to use.

358. The **signs** $+$, $-$, $\times$, $\div$ are the same in algebra as in arithmetic. The sign of multiplication $\times$ is usually omitted, however, multiplication being indicated by simply writing the quantities together. Thus, abc means $a \times b \times c$; $2xy$ means $2 \times x \times y$. Evidently the sign cannot be omitted between two *figures*, as addition instead of multiplication would be indicated. Thus, 24 means $20 + 4$, instead of 2×4.

Another sign of multiplication that is sometimes used between numbers is a dot placed between them. Thus, instead of $2 \times 4 \times 12$, we may indicate the multiplication as $2 \cdot 4 \cdot 12$. This dot always occupies a higher position than the decimal point, so as to avoid confusing the two.

359. A **coefficient** is a figure or letter prefixed to a quantity; it shows how many times the latter is to be taken. Thus, in the expression $4a$, 4 is the coefficient of a, and indicates that a is to be taken four times, or $a + a + a + a$. When several quantities are multiplied together, any of them may be regarded as the coefficient of the others. Thus, in $6axy$, 6 is the coefficient of axy, $6a$ of xy, $6ax$ of y, etc. In general, however, when a coefficient is spoken of, the numerical coefficient only is meant, as the 6 above. When no numerical coefficient is written it is understood to be 1. Thus, cd is the same as $1cd$.

360. The **factors** of a quantity are the quantities which, when multiplied together, will produce it. Thus, 2, 3 and 3 are the factors of 18, since $2 \times 3 \times 3 = 18$; 2, a and b are the factors of $2ab$, since $2 \times a \times b = 2ab$. (Art. **358.**)

361. An **exponent** is a small figure placed at the right and a little above a quantity; it shows how many times the latter is to be taken *as a factor*. Thus, $4^3 = 4 \times 4 \times 4 = 64$; $a^5 = aaaaa$. Any quantity written without an exponent is understood to have an exponent of 1.

The difference between the meaning of a coefficient and an exponent should be clearly understood. A coefficient *multiplies* the quantity which it precedes; it shows that the quantity is to be *added to itself*. Thus, $3a = 3 \times a$, or $a + a + a$. An exponent indicates that a quantity is to be *multiplied by itself*. Thus, $a^3 = a \times a \times a$. A more complete definition of an exponent will be given later.

362. A **power** is the result obtained by taking a quantity two or more times *as a factor*. For example, 16 is the fourth power of 2, because 2 multiplied by itself,

until it has been taken four times as a factor, produces 16; a^3 is the third power of a, because $a \times a \times a = a^3$.

363. A **root** of a quantity is one of its equal factors. Thus, 2 is the root of 4, 8 and 16, since $2 \times 2 = 4$, $2 \times 2 \times 2 = 8$ and $2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 = 16$, 2 being one of the equal factors in each case. In like manner, a is a root of a^2, a^3, a^4, etc. The symbol which denotes that the second or square root is to be extracted is $\sqrt{\ }$, called the **radical sign.** For other roots the same symbol is used, but with a figure called the *index* of the root, written above it to indicate the root. Thus, $\sqrt{a}$, $\sqrt[3]{a}$, $\sqrt[4]{a}$, etc., signify the square root, cube root, fourth root, etc., of a.

364. The **parenthesis** ( ), **brackets** [ ], and **braces** { } have the same meaning, and signify that the quantities within them are to be subjected to the same operations. Thus, $(a+2)4$, $[a+2]4$ and $\{a+2\}4$ all indicate that $a+2$ is to be multiplied by 4, the sign of multiplication being omitted. When two or more expressions are enclosed and written together, their product is indicated. Thus, $(a+b)(c-d^2)(x+y)$ indicates that $a+b$, $c-d^2$ and $x+y$ are to be multiplied together.

365. The above symbols are called **symbols of aggregation,** meaning that the quantities enclosed within them are aggregated, or collected into one quantity. A fourth symbol of aggregation is the **vinculum** ———, which is simply a horizontal line drawn above the quantities affected. Thus, $\overline{a+2} \times 4$ shows that $a+2$ is to be multiplied by 4. The principal use of the vinculum is in connection with the radical sign (Art. **363**), where it is extended over the whole expression whose root is to be extracted. For example, in $\sqrt{x^2+2xy+y^2}$ the vinculum shows that the square root of $x^2+2xy+y^2$ is to be extracted. Without the vinculum, as in $\sqrt{x^2}+2xy+y^2$, the square root of x^2 only is indicated.

366. The **terms** of an algebraic expression are the parts which are connected by the signs + and —. Thus, x^2, $-2xy$ and y^2 are terms of the expression $x^2-2xy+y^2$.

367. **Like terms** are those which differ only in their numerical coefficients; all others are **unlike terms.** Thus, $2ab^2$ and $5ab^2$ are like terms; $5ab$ and $5ab^2$ are unlike terms, because one contains b and the other b^2. Differing signs before two terms do not make them unlike.

368. A **monomial** is an expression consisting of only one term, as $4abc$, $3x^2$, $2ax^3$, etc.

369. A **binomial** is an expression consisting of two terms, as $a + b$, $2a + 5b$, etc.

370. A **trinomial** is an expression consisting of three terms, as $a^2 + 2ab + b^2$, $(a + x)^2 - 2(a + x)y + y^2$, etc. The expression $(a + x)$ being treated as one quantity. (Art. **365.**)

371. A **polynomial** is any expression consisting of more than two terms. The term is usually applied only to an expression consisting of four or more terms.

372. The polynomial $a + a^2b + 2a^3 - 3a^4b - a^5$ is said to be arranged according to the *increasing powers* of a, because the exponents of a increase in each term from left to right, the exponent of the first a being 1 understood. (Art. **361.**) The polynomial $a^2b^3 + ab^2 + 4a^4b + 1$ is arranged according to the *decreasing powers* of b, the exponents of b decreasing in order, from left to right.

373. The arrangement of the terms of a polynomial does not affect its value. Thus, $x^2 + 2xy + y^2$ has the same value as $2xy + y^2 + x^2$, just as $2 + 6 + 4$ has the same value as $6 + 4 + 2$.

READING ALGEBRAIC EXPRESSIONS.

374. Quantities like a, x, b^2, etc., are read "a," "x," "b square," etc. In reading monomials in which multiplication is indicated, the word "times" is not used. Thus, abc is read "abc"; $7ad^2b^3$ is read "$7ad$ square b cube."

375. The polynomial $a + a^2b + 2a^3 - 3a^4b - a^5$ is read "a, plus a square b, plus $2a$ cube, minus $3a$ fourth b, minus

a fifth." Considerable care is required when reading expressions containing polynomials. Thus, if 4 $(a-b)$ were read "4*a* minus *b*," the binomial $4a-b$ would be understood. It *should* be read "4 into *a* minus *b*," or "4 times *a* minus *b*," when it will be understood that 4 multiplies the whole quantity $a-b$, since the word "times" or "into" is not used with monomials. (Art. **374.**) Again $m(m^2+2mn+n^2)$ and $m(m^2+2mn)+n^2$ should each be so read that there can be no doubt as to whether the n^2 is to be multiplied by m.

Let the distinction to be made in reading the following be observed:

$$\sqrt{\frac{m+n}{x-y^2}} \text{ and } \sqrt{m+\frac{n}{x-y^2}}.$$

In the first case, the whole quantity $m+n$ is divided by $x-y^2$, and it would be clear to say, "the square root of the quotient of $m+n$ divided by $x-y^2$." In the second case, where the n only is divided by $x-y^2$, it may be read, "the square root of the quantity m, plus n divided by $x-y^2$." The word "quantity" shows that the square root of the whole expression is taken, and the pause after the m that only the n is divided by $x-y^2$.

376. When a polynomial is affected by an exponent, it should be indicated clearly. Thus,

$$(3a-d^2)\,(3a-d)^2\,(3a-d^2)^2$$

may be read, "the product of $3a-d$ square, $3a-d$ squar*ed* (meaning that the whole quantity is squared), and the square of $3a-d$ square." Otherwise it may be read, "$3a-d$ square, times the square of $3a-d$, times the square of $3a-d$ square."

377. Sometimes expressions like A', B'', c', d'', C_1, a_2, etc., appear in formulas or elsewhere in algebraic problems where it is desirable to have the same letter represent different quantities that are similar, or correspond to one another. The marks $'$, $''$, $'''$, $_1$, $_2$, etc., serve to distinguish the letters. The expressions are also used to designate similar or corresponding lines in geometrical figures, as will

appear in mechanical drawing. A', B'', C''', etc., are read, "*a major prime, b major second, c major third,*" etc.; a', b'', c''', etc., are read, "*a minor prime, b minor second, c minor third,*" etc., a_1, B_2, C_3, d_4, etc., are read, "*a minor sub-one, b major sub-two, c major sub-three, d minor sub-four,*" etc.

POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE QUANTITIES.

378. In algebra, the terms **positive** and **negative** are applied to quantities which are opposed, or directly opposite in character. When a quantity is positive it is denoted by writing the plus sign before it, and when it is negative, by writing the minus sign before it. Thus, $+2a$ and $+x^2y$ are positive, and $-2a$ and $-x^2y$ negative quantities. Besides indicating addition and subtraction, the signs $+$ and $-$ denote the *character* of the quantities which they precede.

379. To illustrate the meaning of positive and negative quantities, suppose a person to earn \$1,000 in a year, and that during that time he has incurred a debt of \$500. If he had no other property, he would be worth \$500. Supposing, however, that he has incurred a debt of \$1,500 instead of \$500, he not only would have no property, but he would be \$500 *in debt*. Now, since money earned *adds* to one's property, and debts incurred *subtract* from it, the two are opposed in character, each tending to destroy the other. Hence, if money earned is taken as *positive*, money owed may be called *negative*.

In the preceding illustration, writing the signs $+$ or $-$ before each sum of money, according as it is positive or negative, we have the following statement for each case:

$$+\$1{,}000 - \$500 = +\$500 \text{ and}$$
$$+\$1{,}000 - \$1{,}500 = -\$500.$$

In the first instance, the person had \$500 remaining. In the second, speaking arithmetically, he *owed* \$500; expressed algebraically, he *had minus* \$500.

There are many other common illustrations of positive and negative quantities. The pull exerted by a locomotive may be said to be positive, while the resistance of the train, which

is opposed to it, is negative. On the thermometer we speak of a temperature above 0° as +, and one below 0° as —. Suppose a man to row a boat up a river. If he is able to propel the boat at 6 miles an hour in quiet water, and the current is sufficient to carry it down stream at the rate of 2 miles an hour, the 6 and 2 are exactly opposite, relative to the movement of the boat, and if the 6 be taken as positive, the 2 would be negative.

Again, suppose that two men, A and B, start to travel from the same point, A going east and B west. Considering the starting point as zero, if A's direction be taken as +, B's direction will be —; if B's direction be taken as +, A's direction will be —.

380. A quantity is always considered to increase in a *positive* direction, and to decrease in a *negative* direction; hence, *any positive quantity, however small, is always considered to be greater than any negative quantity.* For example, a person who *owns* $2 is better off than one who *owes* $10. Also, since a person who owes only $1 is better off than one who owes $10; then of two negative quantities, the one with the smaller numerical value is to be regarded as the greater. From this it follows that *zero*, which is *smaller* than any *positive* quantity, is *greater* than any *negative* quantity. For example, we know that a day when the thermometer stands at 0° is warmer than one with the thermometer at — 15°, and the former is a *higher* temperature than the latter; also when the thermometer stands at — 15°, it is warmer than when it stands at — 25°.

381. Two quantities may be compared *arithmetically*, or *geometrically*. To the question, how much greater is a than b? the answer would be $a - b$, and the result would be the **arithmetic ratio.** Arithmetic ratio, then, corresponds to the *difference between two quantities.* To the question, what part of a is b? the answer would be $b \div a$, $b : a$ or $\frac{b}{a}$, and the result would be the **geometric ratio.** Geometric ratio, then, corresponds to the *quotient obtained by dividing*

one quantity by another. When the word ratio is used alone, geometric ratio is *always* meant.

EXAMPLE.—What is (*a*) the ratio of 16 to 4? (*b*) the arithmetic ratio of 16 to 4?

SOLUTION.—(*a*) The ratio (geometric, understood) of 16 to 4 is 16 : 4, or $\frac{16}{4} = 4$. Ans. (*b*) The arithmetic ratio of 16 to 4 is $16 - 4 = 12$. Ans.

382. The mere fact that a quantity is negative does not *necessarily* imply that it is less than a positive quantity of the same kind. It always becomes less, however, when considered in relation to an increase in the positive direction. Thus, if two men, A and B, start from the same point and travel 100 miles. If A travels east 100 miles and B travels west 100 miles, neither can be said to have traveled any greater distance than the other. But if A's direction be considered + and B's −, then A will have traveled 200 miles further *east* than B.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

383. When writing algebraic expressions, if a positive term stands alone, or if the first term of an expression is positive, the plus sign is omitted, it being understood that the term is positive. Thus, $3a$ means the same as $+3a$, and $a - b$ the same as $+a - b$. The minus sign must never be omitted. Polynomials are usually written with a positive term first, and monomials with the letters arranged alphabetically.

Express the following algebraically:

1. Three x square y square, minus two cd into a plus b.
Ans. $3x^2y^2 - 2cd(a + b)$.

2. The product of m square plus $2mn$ plus n square, and a square b cube c fourth. Ans. $(m^2 + 2mn + n^2)a^2b^3c^4$.

3. A plus the square root of D into X plus Y.
Ans. $A + \sqrt{D}(X + Y)$.

4. A plus the square root of the quantity D into X plus Y.
Ans. $A + \sqrt{D(X + Y)}$.

5. Ten x plus y minus 7 times the difference between x and y divided by 4, plus the quotient of x square minus y square divided by two cd.
Ans. $10x + y - 7\left(x - \frac{y}{4}\right) + \frac{x^2 - y^2}{2cd}$.

When $a = 6$, $b = 5$ and $c = 4$, find the numerical values of

6. $a^2 + 2ab + b^2$. Ans. $6^2 + 2 \times 6 \times 5 + 5^2 = 121$.

7. $2a^2 + 3bc - 5$. Ans. $72 + 60 - 5 = 127$.

8. $2ac^3 - a^2(a + b)$. Ans. 11,892.

9. $abc^2 + ab^2c - a^2bc$. Ans. 360.

When $x = 8$ and $y = 6$, what do the following equal?

10. $(x+y)(x-y) - \sqrt{\frac{x+y^2}{11}}$?

Ans. $(8+6)(8-6) - \sqrt{\frac{8+6^2}{11}} = 26$.

11. $\sqrt{(x+y^2)(x^2+y)} - (x-y)(\sqrt[3]{x}+y)$? Ans. 39.5.

12. $\frac{x^2y^2}{x+y} + \frac{x^2y(x+y^2)}{\sqrt{3xy}}$? Ans. 1,572.57.

384. Thus far, algebra has been shown to differ from arithmetic in the following points:

1. In the use of letters as well as figures to represent numbers, and in the fact that letters are general in their significance, while figures are not.

2. In the use of equations.

3. In the omission of the multiplication sign when letters are used and multiplication is indicated.

4. In the recognition of certain quantities as positive and others as negative, when they are opposed in character. This is a very important difference. It will appear later that the use of negative quantities greatly modifies the arithmetical rules of addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, etc.

385. Another important difference will now be evident, which is, namely, that when letters are used, the various operations, as multiplication and involution, for example, cannot always be performed as in arithmetic, and must be simply indicated. Thus, in $4 \times 2 = 8$, the multiplication is actually performed. If, however, the letter a should represent 4, and b represent 2, their multiplication could be indicated only, by writing a and b together, as ab, which is equivalent to writing 4×2 without performing the operation. Again, $4^2 = 16$, 16 being obtained by actually squaring 4; but if $4 = a$, the square of a can only be indicated by a^2, which corresponds to 4^2.

ADDITION.

386. Addition, in algebra, is the process of finding an expression, called the **sum,** whose value shall equal the *combined value* of the quantities to be added.

387. Either positive or negative quantities may be added, or positive quantities may be added to negative quantities. For example, the sum of \$5 and \$3 is \$8. Letting the letter $a = \$1$, this would be stated in algebra as the sum of $5a$ and $3a$, which is $8a$. In like manner, $a + a = 2a$, $7a + 5a = 12a$, etc.

Again, if a person has two debts, one of \$5 and one of \$3, he is in debt to the amount of \$8. Remembering the meaning of negative quantities, this would be stated in algebra as the sum of $-5a$ and $-3a$, or $-8a$, the letter a representing \$1, as before. In like manner the sum of $-a$ and $-a$ is $-2a$; of $-5a$ and $-5a$ is $-10a$, etc.

Should a person have \$5, however, and owe \$3, his property would amount to but \$2; or if he owed \$7 he would be in debt to the amount of \$2. In arithmetic, the amount of his property or debt is found by subtraction. In algebra, however, where negative quantities are recognized, we should say that the sum of \$5 in money and \$3 in debt, that is, the sum or *combined value* (Art. **386**) of \$5 and $-$ \$3, is \$2; while the sum or combined value of \$5 and $-$ \$7 is $-$\$2. In the first case the $-$ \$3 neutralized three of the $+$ \$5, and in the second case the $+$ \$5 neutralized five of the $-$ \$7. By the same reasoning, the sum of $5a$ and $-3a$ is $2a$; of $5a$ and $-7a$ is $-2a$; of $3a$ and $-3a$ is 0, etc.

388. From the foregoing we see that addition does not always imply a numerical increase. This is because addition, in algebra, is finding the *combined value* of two or more quantities. If two of the quantities are opposite in character, one being positive and the other negative, they tend to neutralize or destroy each other, which reduces their combined value. The sum in algebra is sometimes called the *algebraic sum,* to distinguish it from the arithmetical sum.

389. *The sum of two or more quantities may be indicated by connecting them by their respective signs.* For example, the sum of mn, $5xy^2$ and $-2x$ may be indicated by connecting each term by the plus sign, thus: $mn + 5xy^2 + (-2x)$. (Art. **358.**) But since the quantity $2x$ is negative, it tends to neutralize the positive quantities, and reduces their value by the amount of $2x$. Hence, the sum, or combined value, will be indicated by $mn + 5xy^2 - 2x$.

ADDITION OF MONOMIALS.

There are two cases, according as the terms to be added are like or unlike. (Art. **367.**)

390. Like Terms.—To add like terms having the same sign:

Rule I.—*Add the coefficients, prefix the common sign to their sum, and annex the common symbols.*

To add like terms, some positive and some negative:

Rule II.—*Add the coefficients of the positive and negative terms separately, and subtract the less sum from the greater. Prefix the sign of the greater sum to the result, and annex the common symbols.*

EXAMPLE.—Find the sum of $-2abxy$, $-abxy$, $-3abxy$ and $-6abxy$.

SOLUTION.—The sum of the coefficients is 12 (remember that the coefficient of $-abxy$ is 1), and the common sign is $-$. The common symbols $abxy$ annexed to these give, as the result, $-12abxy$. (Rule I.)

EXAMPLE.—Combine xy^2, $-2xy^2$, $8xy^2$ and $-4xy^2$.

SOLUTION.—The sum of the coefficients of the positive terms is 9, and of the negative terms, 6. Their difference is 3, and the sign of the greater sum is $+$. The common symbols xy^2 annexed to these give, as the result, $3xy^2$. (Rule II.)

391. Unlike Terms.—In arithmetic, unlike numbers, as 5 books and 6 dollars, cannot be added. So, in algebra, unlike terms, as $3ab^2$, $3a^2b$, $-4xy$, etc., cannot be combined into one term, and their sum can only be indicated by connecting the terms by their respective signs. (Art. **389.**) This is another illustration of the fact stated in Art. **385,**

that operations with letters cannot always be performed. Expressions in algebra are composed of quantities between which operations of addition, multiplication, etc., are indicated. The trinomial $m^2 - 2mn + n^2$, for example, is the indicated sum of m^2, $-mn$ and n^2, *but it is to be considered as one quantity in the same way that an arithmetical sum, obtained by actually performing the addition, is considered.*

EXAMPLE.—What does $7cd^3 - 8cx - cd^3 + 6adx + 2cd^3$ equal?

SOLUTION.—In this case part of the terms are like and part unlike. Combining like terms, $7cd^3 + 2cd^3 - cd^3 = 8cd^3$. Connecting the unlike terms with this result by their respective signs, we have, as the final result, $8cd^3 - 8cx + 6adx$.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

392. Find the sum of the following:

1. $-6a^2$, $2a^2$, $-5a^2$, $4a^2$, $-3a^2$ and a^2. Ans. $-7a^2$.
2. $2a^2b$, $-a^2b$, $11a^2b$, $-5a^2b$, $4a^2b$ and $-9a^2b$. Ans. $2a^2b$.
3. $2x^2$, $3xy$, $-x^2$, $8y^2$, $-5xy$ and $-7y^2$. Ans. $x^2 - 2xy + y^2$.

NOTE.—Combine like terms and connect with respective signs.

4. a^2bc, $-2ab^2c$, $3abc^2$, $-4a^2bc$ and $5ab^2c$. Ans. $3ab^2c - 3a^2bc + 3abc^2$.

What do the following equal?

5. $mn^2 + 2mn - mn^2 - 8mn + m^2n$? Ans. $m^2n - 6mn$.
6. $5cd^2 - 5cd^3 + xy - 2cd^2 + 3cd^3 + 4cd^2 - 6xy$? Ans. $7cd^2 - 2cd^3 - 5xy$.

ADDITION OF POLYNOMIALS.

393. Rule.—*To add polynomials, write them one underneath the other, with like terms in the same vertical column. Add each column separately and connect the results by their respective signs.*

EXAMPLE.—Find the sum of $5a^2 + 6ac - 3b^2 - 2xy$, $7ac - 3a^2 + 4b^2 + 3xy$, and $4xy - 5b^2 + 8ac - a^2$.

SOLUTION.—Writing like terms in the same vertical column, we have

$$\begin{array}{rrrrr} & 5a^2 + & 6ac & - 3b^2 & - 2xy \\ & -3a^2 + & 7ac & + 4b^2 & + 3xy \\ & -a^2 + & 8ac & - 5b^2 & + 4xy \\ \hline sum = & a^2 + & 21ac & - 4b^2 & + 5xy. \end{array}$$ Ans.

Example.—Find the sum of $a^2x - ax^2 - x^2$, $ax - x^2 - a^2$, $-2a^2 - 2a^2x - 2ax^2$, and $3a^2 - 3a^2x + 3ax^2$.

Solution.—

$$\begin{array}{rl} & a^2x - ax^2 - x^2 \\ & \qquad\qquad - x^2 - a^2 + ax \\ & -2a^2x - 2ax^2 \qquad\quad - 2a^2 \\ & -3a^2x + 3ax^2 \qquad\quad + 3a^2 \\ \hline sum = & -4a^2x + 0 \quad - 2x^2 + 0 \quad + ax = \end{array}$$

$ax - 4a^2x - 2x^2$. Ans. (Art. **383.**)

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

394. Find the sum of the following:

1. $ax + 2bx + 4by - 3ay$, $2ax + bx + 2ay - by$, and $4ax + 3by$.
   Ans. $7ax + 3bx + 6by - ay$.
2. $a - x + 4y - 3z + w$, $z + 3a - 2x - y - w$, and $x + y + z$.
   Ans. $4a - 2x + 4y - z$.
3. $2a - 3b + 4d$, $2b - 3d + 4c$, $2d - 3c + 4a$, and $2c - 3a + 4b$.
   Ans. $3a + 3b + 3c + 3d$.
4. $6x - 3y + 7m$, $2n - x + y$, $2y - 4x - 5m$, and $m + n - y$.
   Ans. $x - y + 3m + 3n$.
5. $2x - 5y - z + 7$, $3y - 2 - 6x + 8z$, $z + 3x - 4$, and $1 + 2y - 5z$.
   Ans. $3z - x + 2$.

SUBTRACTION.

395. **Subtraction** is the process of finding the *difference* between two quantities; it is the same thing as finding the arithmetic ratio between two quantities. The quantity to be subtracted is called the **subtrahend,** and that from which it is taken, the **minuend.**

396. The **difference** must evidently be a quantity which, when added to the subtrahend, will produce the minuend. Thus, the difference between 10 and 6 is 4, 4 being the number that must be added to the subtrahend 6 to produce the minuend 10. In algebra, when negative quantities occur, it is convenient to make use of this principle, as illustrated in the following six cases, which cover all those that are met with:

1. If $3a$ be subtracted from $5a$, the difference must be a quantity which, when added to $3a$, will produce $5a$. This is evidently $2a$.

2. If $5a$ be subtracted from $3a$, the difference must be a quantity which, when added to $5a$, will produce $3a$. By Art. **390**, this is $-2a$.

In like manner,

3. Subtracting $-3a$ from $5a$ gives a difference of $8a$, since $-3a+8a=5a$.

4. Subtracting $5a$ from $-3a$ gives a difference of $-8a$, since $5a+(-8a)=-3a$. (Art. **390.**)

5. Subtracting $-3a$ from $-5a$ gives a difference of $-2a$, since $-3a+(-2a)=-5a$.

6. Subtracting $-5a$ from $-3a$ gives a difference of $2a$, since $-5a+2a=-3a$.

397. Now, if the sign of the subtrahend had been changed in each case and the resulting expression *added* (algebraically) to the minuend, the results would have been exactly the same. Thus, in the first case, $3a$ with its sign changed becomes $-3a$, which, added to $5a$, equals $5a+(-3a)$, or $2a$; in the second case, $5a$ with its sign changed becomes $-5a$, which added to $3a$, equals $-5a+3a$, or $-2a$; in the third case, $-3a$ with its sign changed becomes $3a$, which, added to $5a$, equals $5a+3a$, or $8a$, and so on. *Hence the difference, or the quantity to be added to the subtrahend to produce the minuend, may be found by changing the sign of the subtrahend and adding it to the minuend.*

398. From the foregoing it is evident that subtraction does not always imply a numerical decrease, for note the result in the 3d case. This is because negative quantities are considered. The difference in the value of a man's property, for example, when he *has* \$3 and when he *owes* \$5, is \$8.

SUBTRACTION OF MONOMIALS.

399. From Art. **397**, we have the following:

Rule.—*To subtract one term from another, change the sign of the subtrahend and proceed as in addition.*

EXAMPLE.—From $-3ab^2x$ take $7ab^2x$.

SOLUTION.—Changing the sign of the subtrahend, $7ab^2x$, and *adding*, we have $-3ab^2x-7ab^2x=-10ab^2x$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—From $8c^2 - 3c^2$ take $4a - 6a$.

SOLUTION.—Combining like terms, $8c^2 - 3c^2 = 5c^2$ and $4a - 6a = -2a$. Changing the sign of $2a$ and adding, we have as the difference, $5c^2 + 2a$. (Art. **391.**)

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

400. Solve the following:

1. From $17a$ take $-11a$. Ans. $28a$.
2. From $-11a$ take $17a$. Ans. $-28a$.
3. Subtract $5cd$ from $-4cd$. Ans. $-9cd$.
4. Subtract $-10b^2$ from $-10b^2$. Ans. 0.
5. From $13y$ take $4y$. Ans. $9y$.
6. From $x - 2x$ take 4. Ans. $-x - 4$.
7. Subtract $6mn - mn$ from $mn - 6mn$. Ans. $-10\,mn$.
8. What quantity added to $10xy$ will produce $-12xy$? Ans. $-22xy$.
9. What, then, does $10xy$ subtracted from $-12xy$ equal? Ans. $-22xy$.

SUBTRACTION OF POLYNOMIALS.

401. To subtract one polynomial from another:

Rule.—*Write the subtrahend underneath the minuend, with like terms in the same vertical column. Change the sign of each term of the subtrahend, and add the result to the minuend.*

EXAMPLE.—From $3ac - 2b$ subtract $ac - b - d$.

SOLUTION.—

$$\begin{array}{rl} & 3ac - 2b \\ & -\ ac + b + d \text{ signs changed.} \\ \hline \textit{difference} = & 2ac - b + d \quad \text{Ans.} \end{array}$$

EXAMPLE.—From $2x^3 - 3x^2y + 2xy^2$ subtract $x^3 - xy^2 + y^3$.

SOLUTION.—

$$\begin{array}{rl} & 2x^3 - 3x^2y + 2xy^2 \\ & -\ x^3 \qquad + xy^2 - y^3 \text{ signs changed.} \\ \hline \textit{difference} = & x^3 - 3x^2y + 3xy^2 - y^3 \quad \text{Ans.} \end{array}$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

402. Solve the following:

1. From $7a + 5b - 3c$ take $a - 7b + 5c - 4$. Ans. $6a + 12b - 8c + 4$.
2. From $3m - 5n + r - 2s$ take $2r + 3n - m - 5s$. Ans. $4m - 8n - r + 3s$.
3. Subtract $2x - 2y + 2$ from $y - x$. Ans. $3y - 3x - 2$.
4. Subtract $3x^3 + 4x^2y - 7xy^2 + y^3 - xy^2$ from $5x^3 + x^2y - 6xy^2 + y^3$. Ans. $2x^3 - 3x^2y + xy^2 + xy^2$
5. From $x^2 + 2xy + y^2$ take $x^2 - 2xy + y^2 + 4$. Ans. $4xy - 4$

403. Before proceeding further, the student should make sure that he fully understands the use of the signs + and —. It has been seen that they indicate the character of the quantities they precede as well as addition and subtraction. In $10a - 7a$, for example, if the minus sign is supposed to indicate the *character* of $7a$, the expression would mean $10a + (-7a)$, or that the *negative* quantity $-7a$ is to be *added* to $10a$; if the minus sign is supposed to indicate subtraction, however, the expression would mean $10a - (+7a)$, or that the *positive* quantity $7a$ is to be *subtracted* from $10a$. Thus, $10a - 7a$ may indicate either the algebraic sum of $+10a$ and $-7a$, as explained in Art. **389**, or the difference (arithmetic ratio) between $+10a$ and $+7a$. The result in either case is the same. Thus,

$$\begin{array}{lrlr} & +10a & & +10a \\ \text{adding} & \underline{-\ 7a} & \text{subtracting} & \underline{+\ 7a} \\ \textit{sum} & = +\ 3a & \textit{difference} & = +\ 3a \end{array}$$

But the minus sign is usually considered to indicate the character of the quantity which the sign precedes, unless the minus sign is followed by a symbol of aggregation. The arithmetic ratio between $-a$ and $-b$ must always be expressed as $-a-(-b)$, the second minus sign indicating subtraction, and the third minus sign, the character of b, i. e., whether positive or negative.

SYMBOLS OF AGGREGATION.

404. Parentheses, brackets, braces, etc., are frequently used to enclose expressions containing one or more terms, when it is desired to *indicate* the addition or subtraction of the expressions so enclosed. To *actually perform* the addition or subtraction, the parenthesis or other symbol must be removed, which requires a due regard for the signs.

405. *When a parenthesis or like symbol is preceded by a minus sign, it may be removed if the signs of all the enclosed terms be changed from + to — or from — to +.*

The reason for this is that the minus sign indicates subtraction, the entire expression within the parenthesis being

the subtrahend, and when the subtraction is performed by removing the parenthesis, the signs of the subtrahend must be changed. (Art. **399.**)

406. *When a parenthesis or like symbol is preceded by a plus sign, it may be removed without changing the signs of the enclosed terms.* This is evident from the fact that the plus sign indicates addition ; in addition the signs are not changed.

EXAMPLE.—Remove the parentheses from $4c - (3a + 4ab - d)$.

SOLUTION.—Changing the sign of each enclosed term, and remembering that the sign of $3a$ is $+$, understood, we have, as the result, $4c - 3a - 4ab + d$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Remove the parentheses from $4a - 5x - (a - 4x) + (x - 8a)$.

SOLUTION.—$4a - 5x - (a - 4x) + (x - 8a) = 4a - 5x - a + 4x + x - 8a$. Adding the like terms, we have

$$\begin{array}{r} 4a - 5x \\ -\ a + 4x \\ -8a + \ x \\ \hline -5a + 0 \end{array} = -5a. \text{ Ans.}$$

407. Symbols of aggregation will often be found enclosing others. In such cases they may be removed in succession by the preceding rules, *always beginning with the innermost pair.*

EXAMPLE.—Remove the parenthesis, etc., from $6a - \{b - [7cd - 4a + (2cd - \overline{a - b})]\}$

SOLUTION.—We first remove the vinculum. This being in effect the same as the parenthesis, the minus sign before the a indicates that $+a$ and $-b$ are to be subtracted.

Hence, we have

$$6a - \{b - [7cd - 4a + (2cd - a + b)]\}.$$

Removing the parenthesis we have

$$6a - \{b - [7cd - 4a + 2cd - a + b]\}.$$

This, with the brackets removed, equals

$$6a - \{b - 7cd + 4a - 2cd + a - b\},$$

which equals $\quad 6a - b + 7cd - 4a + 2cd - a + b.$

Combining like terms,

$$6a - 4a - a - b + b + 7cd + 2cd = a + 9cd. \text{ Ans.}$$

408. From the foregoing, it is evident that an expression may be placed within a parenthesis preceded by a

minus sign by changing all its signs, or within a parenthesis preceded by a plus sign without changing its signs.

EXAMPLE.—Place within a parenthesis the last three terms of $4xy + 2bc - 8x - 5 + 2b$, indicating that they are to be subtracted from the first two.

SOLUTION.—

$$4xy + 2bc - 8x - 5 + 2b = 4xy + 2bc - (8x + 5 - 2b). \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

409. Remove the parentheses from the following:

1. $-(2mn - m^2 - n^2)$. Ans. $m^2 - 2mn + n^2$.
2. $1 - (-b + c + 3)$. Ans. $b - c - 2$.
3. $5a - 4b + 3c - (-3a + 2b - c)$. Ans. $8a - 6b + 4c$.
4. $3x - (2x - 5) + (7 - x)$. Ans. 12.

Remove the parentheses, etc., from the following:

5. $m - [4n - k - (m + n - 2k)]$. Ans. $2m - 3n - k$.
6. $5x - (2x - 3y) - (x + 5y)$. Ans. $2x - 2y$.
7. $3a - [7a - (5a - b - a)] - (-a - 4b)$. Ans. $a + 3b$.
8. $3x + \{2y - [5x - (3y + \overline{x - 4y})]\}$. Ans. $y - x$.
9. $100x - \{200x - [500x - (-100x) - 300x] - 400x\}$. Ans. $600x$.
10. $7cx - \{4cy - [(4cx + 3cy) + cy - cx]\}$. Ans. $10cx$.

NOTE.—Observe that the sign before the inner parenthesis is +, understood.

11. Place the 2d, 3d, and 4th terms of the expression $2cd - 8m + 5x - 2y + x - 4a$, within a parenthesis preceded by a minus sign.
Ans. $2cd - (8m - 5x + 2y) + x - 4a$.

12. Indicate the addition of $-b^2 + cd$ to 75. Ans. $75 + (-b^2 + cd)$.

13. Enclose the whole expression $x^2 + 2xy + y^2 - (a - b)$ within brackets having a minus sign prefixed.
Ans. $-[-x^2 - 2xy - y^2 + (a - b)]$.

NOTE.—Changing the sign before the inner parenthesis is in effect the same as changing the sign of both a and b; hence, the signs of a and $-b$ remain as before.

MULTIPLICATION.

410. Multiplication is the process of taking one quantity as many times as there are units in another quantity.

411. The quantity that is taken, or multiplied, is called the **multiplicand**, and the quantity by which we multiply is called the **multiplier**. The result of multiplication is called the **product**.

412. The **product** is obtained by taking the multiplicand a certain number of times, as indicated by the multiplier. *The product, therefore, is the same kind of a quantity as the multiplicand.* For example, 5 dollars multiplied by 10 is 50 *dollars;* 5 units $\times$ 10 = 50 *units;* 5 pounds $\times$ 10 = 50 *pounds.* In each case the multiplicand of 5 dollars, 5 units, or 5 pounds is taken ten times to form a product of the same kind.

413. The same rule holds with regard to positive and negative quantities. Thus, the positive quantity $+5a$ multiplied by 10 is the positive quantity $+50a$, while the negative quantity $-5a$ multiplied by 10 is the negative quantity $-50a$.

414. The **multiplier** shows, 1st, how many times the multiplicand is to be taken to form the product, and 2d, whether the product is to be added or subtracted when taken in connection with other quantities, a multiplier having the plus sign indicating that the product is to be added, and a multiplier with the minus sign, that it is to be subtracted.

415. There are four cases in multiplication that cover, in principle, all that are met with; they may be illustrated as follows:

1. $+5$ multiplied by $+3 = +15$. Since the multiplicand 5 is positive, the product 15 must be positive. (Art. **413.**) The plus sign of the multiplier indicates that the product is to be added. Hence, $(+5) \times (+3) = +(+15)$, which, by Art. **406,** $= +15$.

2. $+5$ multiplied by $-3 = -15$. Since the multiplicand is positive, the product must be positive. The minus sign of the multiplier indicates that the product is to be subtracted. Hence, $(+5) \times (-3) = -(+15)$, which, by Art **405,** $= -15$.

By similar reasoning it can be shown that

3. $(-5) \times (+3) = +(-15) = -15$.
4. $(-5) \times (-3) = -(-15) = +15$.

416. From these examples, it will be observed that when the multiplicand and multiplier have like signs, the

product has the plus sign, and when they have unlike signs, the product has the minus sign. Hence, in finding the product of two quantities, *like signs produce plus and unlike signs minus.*

417. We know from arithmetic that the product of two numbers is the same in whatever order they are taken. Thus, 3×4 and 4×3 are each equal to 12. Similarly, in Algebra, the factors will give the same results whatever their order. Thus, $5a \times 4b = 5 \times a \times 4 \times b = 5 \times 4 \times a \times b = 20ab$. Hence, in finding the product of two quantities, *the coefficients are multiplied together and prefixed to the literal factors.*

418. Let it be required to multiply a^3 by a^2. By Art. **362**, a^3 means $a \times a \times a$, and a^2 means $a \times a$. Hence, $a^3 \times a^2 = a \times a \times a \times a \times a = a^5 = a^{3+2}$. Therefore, *the exponent of a letter in the product is equal to the sum of its exponents in the factors.*

419. Particular notice should be taken of the way that coefficients and exponents are treated in multiplication. *Coefficients are multiplied, while exponents are added.*

MULTIPLICATION OF MONOMIALS.

420. From the foregoing principles, we have, when there are two factors, the following:

Rule.—*Multiply the coefficients together; annex the letters of both monomials to the result, giving to each letter an exponent equal to the sum of its exponents in the factors. Make the sign of the product plus when the two factors have like signs, and minus when they have unlike signs.*

EXAMPLE.—Multiply $4a^2b$ by $-5a^3bc$.

SOLUTION.—The product of the coefficients is 20, and the letters to be annexed are a, b, and c. The new exponent of a is 5, and of b, 2, since $a^{2+3} = a^5$, and $b^{1+1} = b^2$. The sign of the product is minus, since the two factors have different signs. Hence, $4a^2b \times -5a^3bc = -20a^5b^2c$. Ans.

421. When there are more than two factors, we have simply three or more examples in multiplication to do in succession, each to be performed by the foregoing rule.

EXAMPLE.—Find the continued product of $6x^2yz^3$, $-9x^2y^2z^2$, and $-3x^4yz$.

SOLUTION.— $6x^2yz^3 \times -9x^2y^2z^2 = -54x^{2+2}y^{1+2}z^{3+2}$, or $-54x^4y^3z^5$. Now, multiplying this product by $-3x^4yz$, we have $-54x^4y^3z^5 \times -3x^4yz = 162x^8y^4z^6$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

422. Find the product of

1. a^3b^2 and $-5abd$. Ans. $-5a^4b^3d$.
2. $-7xy$ and $-7x^2y^2$. Ans. $49x^3y^3$.
3. $-15m^5n^6$ and $3mn$. Ans. $-45m^6n^7$.
4. $3a(x-y)^2$ and $2a^2(x-y)$. Ans. $6a^3(x-y)^3$.

NOTE.—Treat the $(x-y)$ as though it were a single letter.

5. Find the continued product of $2a^2m^2x$, $-3a^2mx^3$ and $4am^3x^2$. Ans. $-24a^6m^6x^6$.
6. What does $-a^2bn \times -2cdn \times -3bdc^2 \times -2acn^2$ equal? Ans. $12a^3b^2c^4d^2n^4$.

MULTIPLICATION OF POLYNOMIALS.

423. When one of the factors is a monomial:

Rule.—*Multiply each term of the polynomial by the monomial, remembering that like signs produce plus, and unlike signs produce minus.*

EXAMPLE.—Find the product of $-9a^5 + 3a^3b^2 - 4a^2b^3 - b^5$ and $-3ab^4$.

SOLUTION.—

$$\begin{array}{l} -9a^5 + 3a^3b^2 - 4a^2b^3 - b^5 \\ -3ab^4 \\ \hline 27a^6b^4 - 9a^4b^6 + 12a^3b^7 + 3ab^9 \end{array}$$ Ans.

424. When both factors are polynomials:

Rule.—*Multiply each term of one polynomial by each term of the other, and add the partial products.*

EXAMPLE.—Multiply $6a - 4b$ by $4a - 2b$.

SOLUTION.—Write the multiplier under the multiplicand, and begin to multiply *at the left* instead of at the right, as in arithmetic, since polynomials are always written and read from the left, and there are no numbers to carry.

	$6a - 4b$	(1)
	$4a - 2b$	
Multiplying (1) by $4a$ gives	$24a^2 - 16ab$	(2)
Multiplying (1) by $-2b$ gives	$-12ab + 8b^2$	(3)
Adding (2) and (3) gives	$24a^2 - 28ab + 8b^2$	Ans.

It will be noticed that the like terms, $-16ab$ and $-12ab$, are written under each other so that it will be easier to add them.

EXAMPLE.—Multiply $x^3 - x + 1 + x^2$ by $1 - x^2 + x$.

SOLUTION.—With a view to bringing like terms in the same columns, arrange both multiplicand and multiplier either according to the increasing or decreasing powers of the same letter. (Art. **372.**) Arranging in this case according to the increasing powers of x, we have

$$\begin{array}{lll}
 & 1 - x + x^2 + x^3 & (1) \\
 & 1 + x - x^2 & \\
\hline
\text{Multiplying (1) by 1 gives} & 1 - x + x^2 + x^3 & (2) \\
\text{Multiplying (1) by } + x \text{ gives} & \quad x - x^2 + x^3 + x^4 & (3) \\
\text{Multiplying (1) by } - x^2 \text{ gives} & \quad\quad - x^2 + x^3 - x^4 - x^5 & (4) \\
\hline
\text{Adding (2), (3), and (4) gives} & 1 \quad - x^2 + 3x^3 \quad - x^5 & \text{Ans.}
\end{array}$$

EXAMPLE.—Multiply $2a + 1 - 3a^2 + a^4$ by $a^3 - 2a - 2$.

SOLUTION.—Arranging according to the decreasing powers of a,

$$\begin{array}{lll}
 & a^4 - 3a^2 + 2a + 1 & (1) \\
 & a^3 - 2a - 2 & \\
\hline
\text{Multiplying (1) by } a^3 \text{ gives} & a^7 - 3a^5 + 2a^4 + a^3 & \\
\text{Multiplying (1) by } - 2a \text{ gives} & \quad - 2a^5 \quad + 6a^3 - 4a^2 - 2a & \\
\text{Multiplying (1) by } - 2 \text{ gives} & \quad\quad - 2a^4 \quad + 6a^2 - 4a - 2 & \\
\hline
\text{Adding} & a^7 - 5a^5 \quad + 7a^3 + 2a^2 - 6a - 2 & \\
 & & \text{[Ans.}
\end{array}$$

425. The product of two or more polynomials is often indicated by enclosing each of the factors in a parenthesis, and writing one after the other. When the indicated multiplication is performed, the expression is said to be expanded.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

426. Multiply the following:

1. $x^2 + 2xy + y^2$ by $x + y$. Ans. $x^3 + 3x^2y + 3xy^2 + y^3$.
2. $3ab^2m^3 + 4a^2b - 2$ by $a^6b^7m^8$. Ans. $3a^7b^9m^{11} + 4a^8b^8m^8 - 2a^6b^7m^8$.
3. $c^2 - d^2$ by $c^2 + d^2$. Ans. $c^4 - d^4$.
4. $x^4 + x^2y^2 + y^4$ by $x^2 - y^2$. Ans. $x^6 - y^6$.
5. $x^2 + 1 - x^3 - x$ by $x + 1$. Ans. $1 - x^4$.
6. $3a^2 - 7a + 4$ by $2a^2 + 9a - 5$. Ans. $6a^4 + 13a^3 - 70a^2 + 71a - 20$.
7. $5m^2 - 3mn + 4n^2$ by $6m - 5n$. Ans. $30m^3 - 43m^2n + 39mn^2 - 20n^3$.

Expand the following:

8. $(2a - 3c)(4 - 3a)$. Ans. $8a - 12c - 6a^2 + 9ac$.
9. $(x + 2)(x - 2)(x^2 + 4)$. Ans. $x^4 - 16$.
10. $[x(x^2 - y^2) - 2][x(x^2 + y^2) + 2]$.

NOTE.—The expressions in the brackets reduce to $x^3 - xy^2 - 2$ and $x^3 + xy^2 + 2$. The product of these is $x^6 - x^2y^4 - 4xy^2 - 4$.

THREE IMPORTANT EXAMPLES.

427. The first two examples are:

1. To find the square of the *sum* of two quantities.

2. To find the square of the *difference* of two quantities.

Let a represent one quantity and b the other quantity. Their sum would then be represented by $a + b$ and their difference by $a - b$. Squaring these by multiplying each by itself, we have:

$$\begin{array}{rl} 1. & a + b \\ & a + b \\ \hline & a^2 + ab \\ & \quad\;\; ab + b^2 \\ \hline & a^2 + 2ab + b^2 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{rl} 2. & a - b \\ & a - b \\ \hline & a^2 - ab \\ & \quad - ab + b^2 \\ \hline & a^2 - 2ab + b^2 \end{array}$$

428. By examining the products it will be evident that, since a and b represent any two quantities, *the square of the sum of two quantities equals the square of the first, plus twice the product of the first by the second, plus the square of the second.*

429. Also, that

The square of the difference of two quantities equals the square of the first, minus twice the product of the first by the second, plus the square of the second.

430. The third example is:

3. To find the product of the sum and difference of two quantities. By multiplication, we have

$$\begin{array}{l} a + b \\ a - b \\ \hline a^2 + ab \\ \quad - ab - b^2 \\ \hline a^2 \qquad - b^2 \end{array}$$

431. That is, *the product of the sum and difference of two quantities equals the difference of their squares.*

432. These three principles are very important, and should be committed to memory. They may also be expressed by formulas in the same way that the rule in Art.

353 was expressed by a formula. Thus, letting a represent one quantity and b the other quantity,

$$(a+b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2. \qquad (1.)$$
$$(a-b)^2 = a^2 - 2ab + b^2. \qquad (2.)$$
$$(a+b)(a-b) = a^2 - b^2. \qquad (3.)$$

The meaning of these formulas will be made clear by supposing, for example, that $a = 10$ and $b = 2$. By formula **1**, the square of the sum of 10 and 2, or the square of 12, should be $10^2 + 2 \times 10 \times 2 + 2^2 = 100 + 40 + 4 = 144$, which we know to be actually the case.

433. By the use of these principles and formulas the *square* of the *sum or difference* of any two quantities, or the *product* of the *sum and difference* of any two quantities may be found, without actually performing the multiplication. *The student should practise until he can readily apply them.*

EXAMPLE.—Square $3x^2 + 5$.

SOLUTION.—The square of the first term is $3x^2 \times 3x^2 = 9x^4$, twice the product of the terms is $30x^2$, and the square of the last term is 25. Hence, by formula **1**, letting $a = 3x^2$ and $b = 5$,

$$(3x^2 + 5)^2 = 9x^4 + 30x^2 + 25. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—Square $4cd - x$.

SOLUTION.—The square of the first term is $16c^2d^2$, twice the product of the first by the second is $8cdx$, and the square of the last term is x^2. Hence, by formula **2**, letting $a = 4cd$ and $b = x$,

$$(4cd - x)^2 = 16c^2d^2 - 8cdx + x^2. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—Expand $(x^2 + 3)(x^2 - 3)$.

SOLUTION.—The square of the first term is x^4, and of the second, 9. Hence, by formula **3**, letting $a = x^2$ and $b = 3$,

$$(x^2 + 3)(x^2 - 3) = x^4 - 9. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

434. Square the following:

1. $m + n$. Ans. $m^2 + 2mn + n^2$.
2. $4x + 2$. Ans. $16x^2 + 16x + 4$.
3. $3a - 5b$. Ans. $9a^2 - 30ab + 25b^2$.
4. $1 - 2c^3$. Ans. $1 - 4c^3 + 4c^6$.
5. $3x^2 - 2y^3$. Ans. $9x^4 - 12x^2y^3 + 4y^6$.
6. $ab^2c^3 + 1$. Ans. $a^2b^4c^6 + 2ab^2c^3 + 1$.

Expand the following:

7. $(m + 1)(m - 1)$. Ans. $m^2 - 1$.

8. $(x^2+y^2)(x^2-y^2)$. Ans. x^4-y^4.
9. $(3x^2y+2)(3x^2y-2)$. Ans. $9x^4y^2-4$.
10. $(4a+4b^2)(4a-4b^2)$. Ans. $16a^2-16b^4$.
11. Square $2c^2-c+d$.

SOLUTION to 11.—By Art. **408**, this may be written $2c^2-(c-d)$. Then, in squaring, the binomial $c-d$ should be used as one quantity. (See Art. **391**.) Thus, $(2c^2)^2=4c^4$; $(c-d)^2=c^2-2cd+d^2$. Hence, by formula **2**, letting $a=2c^2$ and $b=c-d$, we have $(2c^2-c+d)^2=4c^4-4c^2(c-d)+c^2-2cd+d^2=4c^4-4c^3+4c^2d+c^2-2cd+d^2$. Ans. This method is sometimes, though not always, more convenient than direct multiplication.

DIVISION.

435. Division, in Algebra, is that process by which, when a product and one of its factors are given, the other factor may be found. The product of the two factors is called the **dividend,** the given factor the **divisor,** and the required factor the **quotient.**

From these definitions, it is clear that the quotient multiplied by the divisor produces the dividend. Division, therefore, is the converse of multiplication, and the following principles may be proved directly from those given in Arts. **416-419:**

436. *If the dividend and divisor have like signs, the quotient will have the plus sign; if they have unlike signs, the quotient will have the minus sign.*

437. *The coefficient of the quotient is equal to the coefficient of the dividend divided by the coefficient of the divisor.*

438. *The exponent of a letter in the quotient is equal to its exponent in the dividend, minus its exponent in the divisor.*

439. Let it be required to divide a^2 by a^2. We have to obtain a quotient which, when multiplied by the divisor a^2, will produce the dividend a^2. The quotient is evidently 1. By Art. **438**, however, we know that $a^2 \div a^2 = a^{2-2} = a^0$. Hence, *any quantity whose exponent is 0 is equal to 1.*

From the foregoing principles, the rules for division are obtained.

DIVISION OF MONOMIALS.

440. Rule.—*Divide the coefficient of the dividend by that of the divisor. Annex to the result the letters of the dividend, each with an exponent equal to its exponent in the dividend, minus its exponent in the divisor, omitting all letters whose exponents become zero.*

Make the sign of the quotient plus when the dividend and divisor have like signs, and minus when they have unlike signs.

EXAMPLE.—Divide $6a^5b^4c^3$ by $-3a^2bc^3$.

SOLUTION.—The quotient of $6 \div 3$ is 2. The letters to be annexed, and their exponents, are $a^{5-2} = a^3$, and $b^{4-1} = b^3$. The c has an exponent of $3 - 3 = 0$, so that it becomes equal to 1, and is omitted. The sign of the quotient is minus. Hence, $6a^5b^4c^3 \div -3a^2bc^3 = -2a^3b^3$. Ans. Proof: $-3a^2bc^3 \times -2a^3b^3 = 6a^5b^4c^3$.

EXAMPLE.—Divide $-10a^6b^3c^3d$ by $-2ab^3c$.

SOLUTION.— $-10a^6b^3c^3d \div -2ab^3c = 5a^{6-1}b^{3-3}c^{3-1}d = 5a^5cd$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

441. Divide the following:

1. $12m^3n$ by $4n$. Ans. $3m^3$.
2. $30x^6y^5bc^3$ by $-6x^5y^5c^2$. Ans. $-5xbc$.
3. $-44a^3b^2c^3$ by $-11ab^2c^3$. Ans. $4a^2b$.
4. $-100x^4y^3z^2$ by x^3y^2. Ans. $-100xyz^2$.
5. $75pq^2x^3m^4$ by $75x^3$. Ans. pq^2m^4.

DIVISION OF POLYNOMIALS.

442. When the divisor is a monomial:

Rule.—*Divide each term of the dividend by the divisor, remembering that like signs produce plus and unlike signs minus.*

EXAMPLE.—Divide $12a^2b^4 - 9ab^3 + 6a^3b^4$ by $3ab^3$.

SOLUTION.—

$$3ab^3)\overline{12a^2b^4 - 9ab^3 + 6a^3b^4}$$

$$4ab - 3 + 2a^2b \text{ quotient. Ans.}$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

443. Divide the following:

1. $64m^3n^3 - 32mn^3 + 8m^2n$ by $8mn$. Ans. $8mn^2 - 4n + m$.

2. $27x^2y^2z - 9x^2yz^2 - 333x^2y^2z^2$ by $-3x^2yz$. Ans. $-9y + 3z + 111yz$.
3. $10(x+y)^2 - 5a(x+y) + 5a^2(x+y)$ by $5(x+y)$.
Ans. $2(x+y) - a + a^2$.

444. When the divisor is a polynomial:

Rule.—*Arrange both dividend and divisor according to the ascending or descending powers of some letter.*

Divide the first term of the dividend by the first term of the divisor for the first term of the quotient.

Multiply the whole divisor by the first term of the quotient, and subtract the product from the dividend.

Regard the remainder as a new dividend, and divide its first term by the first term of the divisor, for the second term of the quotient. Multiply the whole divisor by the second term of the quotient, and subtract the product from the first remainder.

So proceed until a remainder of zero is found, or a remainder whose first term cannot be divided by the first term of the divisor.

EXAMPLE.—Divide $x^4 + x^3 - 9x^2 - 16x - 4$ by $x^2 + 4x + 4$.

SOLUTION.—

$$
\begin{array}{l}
x^2 + 4x + 4\,)\; x^4 + x^3 - 9x^2 - 16x - 4\,(\,x^2 - 3x - 1 \textit{ quotient. Ans.} \\
\qquad\qquad\quad x^4 + 4x^3 + 4x^2 \\
\qquad\qquad\quad \overline{-3x^3 - 13x^2 - 16x} \\
\qquad\qquad\quad -3x^3 - 12x^2 - 12x \\
\qquad\qquad\qquad\quad \overline{-\;x^2 - 4x - 4} \\
\qquad\qquad\qquad\quad -\;x^2 - 4x - 4 \\
\qquad\qquad\qquad\quad \overline{0 \quad 0 \quad 0}
\end{array}
$$

The first term x^2 of the divisor is contained in x^4, the first term of the dividend, x^2 times; hence, x^2 is the first term of the quotient. The whole divisor multiplied by this term gives $x^4 + 4x^3 + 4x^2$ as a product, which, subtracted from the dividend, gives as a remainder $-3x^3 - 13x^2 - 16x - 4$. It is not necessary here to bring down the -4, since only three terms are required to contain the divisor.

The first term x^2 of the divisor is contained in $-3x^3$, the first term of the new dividend, $-3x$ times. Multiplying the divisor by this new term of the quotient, we have $-3x^3 - 12x^2 - 12x$. Subtracting this from the first remainder,

we obtain $-x^2-4x-4$ for a new remainder, the -4 being brought down from the original dividend. The first term of the divisor is contained in the first term of the new remainder or dividend -1 time. Multiplying the divisor by this, we get $-x^2-4x-4$, which, subtracted from $-x^2-4x-4$, the last remainder, leaves a difference of zero. The work ends here, since there are no more terms in the dividend to be brought down.

EXAMPLE.—Divide $9x^2y^2+x^4-4y^4-6x^3y$ by x^2+2y^2-3xy.

SOLUTION.—First arrange the dividend and divisor according to the descending powers of x.

$$
\begin{array}{l}
x^2-3xy+2y^2)\ x^4-6x^3y+9x^2y^2-4y^4\ (x^2-3xy-2y^2 \quad \text{Ans.} \\
\qquad\qquad\quad \underline{x^4-3x^3y+2x^2y^2} \\
\qquad\qquad\quad -3x^3y+7x^2y^2 \qquad\quad -4y^4 \\
\qquad\qquad\quad \underline{-3x^3y+9x^2y^2-6xy^3} \\
\qquad\qquad\qquad\quad -2x^2y^2+6xy^3-4y^4 \\
\qquad\qquad\qquad\quad \underline{-2x^2y^2+6xy^3-4y^4} \\
\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad 0 \qquad 0 \qquad 0
\end{array}
$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

445. Divide the following:

1. $x^2-7x+12$ by $x-3$. Ans. $x-4$.
2. x^2+x-72 by $x+9$. Ans. $x-8$.
3. $2x^3-x^2+3x-9$ by $2x-3$. Ans. x^2+x+3.
4. $x^4+11x^2-12x-5x^3+6$ by $3+x^2-3x$. Ans. x^2-2x+2.
5. $x^4-6xy-9x^2-y^2$ by x^2+y+3x. Ans. x^2-3x-y.
6. x^6-1 by $x-1$. Ans. $x^5+x^4+x^3+x^2+x+1$.

FACTORING.

446. In multiplication, two or more factors are multiplied together to form a *product*. **Factoring** is the process of resolving a product into its **factors.**

447. The factors of a quantity are those quantities which multiplied together will produce the quantity. Thus, $6a^2$ and b^3; $2a^2$ and $3b^3$; a^2 and $6b^3$; $2a$ and $3ab^3$; 2, 3, a, a, b, b and b, etc., are all factors of $6a^2b^3$, since $6a^2\times b^3=6a^2b^3$, $2a^2\times 3b^3=6a^2b^3$, $a^2\times 6b^3=6a^2b^3$, $2a\times 3ab^3=6a^2b^3$ and $2\times 3\times a\times a\times b\times b\times b=6a^2b^3$.

In solving algebraic problems, it is frequently very necessary to be able to recognize a factor of one or more algebraic

expressions, and Arts. **446-471** give some of the simplest methods of discovering factors.

448. A quantity is a **perfect square** when it has two equal factors. One of the equal factors is called the **square root** of the quantity. (Art. **363.**)

449. Equal factors are those whose letters have the same exponents and coefficients, and which have the same signs. Thus, $3(4cd^2-y)$ and $3(4cd^2-y)$ are equal factors of $3(4cd^2-y) \times 3(4cd^2-y) = 9(4cd^2-y)^2$; but $3(4cd^2-y)$ and $-3(4cd^2-y)$ are unequal factors, since the signs of the coefficient 3 are not the same. The factor $-3(4cd^2-y)$ is equivalent to $3(y-4cd^2)$, an expression which will have in general a different value from $3(4cd^2-y)$, when the numerical values are substituted for the letters.

450. A quantity is a **perfect cube** when it has three equal factors. One of the equal factors is called the **cube root** of the quantity.

451. In factoring, it is important to be able to easily distinguish quantities that are perfect squares and cubes, and to determine their roots. By definition, $9a^2b^2$ is a perfect square because $3ab \times 3ab = 9a^2b^2$, and $3ab$ is its square root. Also, $8a^6$ is a perfect cube because $2a^2 \times 2a^2 \times 2a^2 = 8a^6$, and $2a^2$ is its cube root. In each of these cases the coefficients are multiplied together, and the exponents are *added*, to produce the coefficients and exponents of the power, according to the rules of multiplication. *Hence, a quantity is a perfect square when its coefficient is a perfect square, and the exponents of all its letters can be divided by 2;* it will also be shown later that a perfect square must be a positive quantity. *A quantity is a perfect cube when its coefficient is a perfect cube and the exponents of all its letters can be divided by 3.* For example, $36x^{10}$, $49b^2c^4d^8$, $16a^6b^{12}$ and 1 are all perfect squares, whose roots are $6x^5$, $7bc^2d^4$, $4a^3b^6$ and 1, respectively; $27x^{12}$, $-64b^3c^9d^6$, $8a^{15}b^{18}$ and 1 are all perfect cubes, whose roots are $3x^4$, $-4bc^3d^2$, $2a^5b^6$ and 1, respectively.

CASE I.

452. *When all the terms of an expression have a common factor, the expression may be resolved into two factors by dividing each term by the common factor.*

EXAMPLE.—Factor $16x^2y^2 + 4x^3y^2 - 12xy^4$.

SOLUTION.—It is evident that each term contains the common factor $4xy^2$. Dividing the expression by $4xy^2$, we obtain as a quotient $4x + x^2 - 3y^2$. The two factors, therefore, are $4xy^2$ and $4x + x^2 - 3y^2$. Hence, by Art. **452**, we have

$$16x^2y^2 + 4x^3y^2 - 12xy^4 = 4xy^2(4x + x^2 - 3y^2). \quad \text{Ans.}$$

453. When examining a polynomial for a monomial factor, first ascertain if the numerical coefficients have a common factor. This is readily done by dividing the polynomial by the smallest coefficient. If it will not divide each term exactly, factor this coefficient, and divide by each factor. If none of the factors will divide each term of the polynomial without a remainder, the polynomial has no numerical factor. Having ascertained that the coefficients have a common factor, reserve this factor and examine the polynomial to see if each term has a common letter. If so, divide each term by this letter, affecting it with an exponent corresponding to the lowest exponent of the letter in the polynomial, and multiply the numerical factor (if any) previously found by the letter. So proceed with the remaining letters.

EXAMPLE.—Ascertain if $12ab^2c^3 - 18a^3c^2y + 24a^2c^4 - 36a^4bc^5y^2$ has a monomial factor.

SOLUTION.—12 is the lowest coefficient, and will divide each term except the second. Resolving 12 into the factors 2 and 6, 6 will divide the second term; hence, 6 is a numerical factor of all the terms of the polynomial. The letters a and c are common to all of the terms, and the lowest powers of a and c are a and c^2. Multiplying together 6, a, and c^2, $6ac^2$ is a factor of the polynomial. Dividing the polynomial by $6ac^2$, the quotient is $2b^2c - 3a^2y + 4ac^2 - 6a^3bc^3y^2$; consequently, the factors are $6ac^2$ and $2b^2c - 3a^2y + 4ac^2 - 6a^3bc^3y^2$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

454. Factor the following expressions:

1. $a^4 + ax$. Ans. $a(a^3 + x)$.
2. $12a^5 - 2a^3 + 4a^4$. Ans. $2a^3(6a^2 - 1 + 2a)$.

3. $30m^4n^2 - 6n^2$. Ans. $6n^2(5m^4 - n)$.
4. $16x^2y^3 - 8x^5 + 8$. Ans. $8(2x^2y^3 - x^5 + 1)$.
5. $4x^3y - 12x^2y^2 + 8xy^3$. Ans. $4xy(x^2 - 3xy + 2y^2)$.
6. $49a^2b^2c^4 - 63a^3b^2c^4 + 7a^4b^2c^2$. Ans. $7a^2b^2c^2(7bc - 9ac + a^2)$.

CASE II.

455. *To factor a trinomial which is a perfect square:*

This case is simply the reverse of Arts. **428** and **429**, and may be expressed by the following formulas, which we have from **1** and **2** in Art. **432**:

$$a^2 + 2ab + b^2 = (a + b)(a + b) = (a + b)^2. \qquad (4.)$$
$$a^2 - 2ab + b^2 = (a - b)(a - b) = (a - b)^2. \qquad (5.)$$

The two trinomials $a^2 + 2ab + b^2$ and $a^2 - 2ab + b^2$ each have two equal factors, and are, therefore, perfect squares; moreover, since a may represent one quantity and b any other quantity, it is evident that *any* trinomial having the form $a^2 + 2ab + b^2$ or $a^2 - 2ab + b^2$ is a perfect square. Hence,

456. *Any trinomial is a perfect square when the first and last terms are perfect squares and positive, and the second term is twice the product of their square roots.*

457. By examining the foregoing trinomials and their factors, the following rule for obtaining one of the equal factors will be evident.

Rule.—*Extract the square roots of the first and last terms of the trinomial, and connect the results by the sign of the second term.*

EXAMPLE.—Factor $x^2 + 2xy + y^2$.

SOLUTION.—The square root of the first term is x; of the last term, y; twice this product equals the second term; the sign of the second term is plus. Hence, one of the equal factors is $x + y$. Therefore, by formula **4**, Art. **455**, letting $a = x$ and $b = y$,

$$x^2 + 2xy + y^2 = (x + y)(x + y) = (x + y)^2. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—Factor $36m^2 - 24mn + 4n^2$.

SOLUTION.—The square root of the first term is $6m$; of the last term, $2n$; twice their product equals the second term; the sign of the second term is minus. Hence, one of the equal factors is $6m - 2n$. Therefore, by formula **5**, letting $a = 6m$ and $b = 2n$,

$$36m^2 - 24mn + 4n^2 = (6m - 2n)(6m - 2n) = (6m - 2n)^2. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

458. When the terms of a trinomial which is a perfect square do not come in their proper order, as indicated in Art. **456**, they should be rearranged to bring them so.

EXAMPLE.—Factor $6a^3bc + 9a^6b^2c^2 + 1$.

SOLUTION.—By Art. **451**, the terms $9a^6b^2c^2$ and 1 are perfect squares, and $6a^3bc$ is equal to twice the product of their square roots, or $6a^3bc = 2 \times 3a^3bc \times 1$. Hence, arranged in their proper order, $9a^6b^2c^2$ and 1 should be the first and last terms, and $6a^3bc$ the second term, as follows: $9a^6b^2c^2 + 6a^3bc + 1$. Factoring this expression, we have $3a^3bc + 1$ as one of the factors. Therefore,

$$6a^3bc + 9a^6b^2c^2 + 1 = (3a^3bc + 1)(3a^3bc + 1) = (3a^3bc + 1)^2. \text{ Ans.}$$

459. It is quite as important to be able to distinguish trinomials which are perfect squares from those that are not, as to be able to factor them. This can always be done by the aid of the principle stated in Art. **456**. For example, to find whether $9a^4b^6 + 4 - 6a^2b^3$ is a perfect square, we first arrange the terms so that the first and last are the perfect squares, and have $9a^4b^6 - 6a^2b^3 + 4$. Now, it will be observed that the second term is not equal to twice the product of the square roots of the first and last terms, or $2 \times 3a^2b^3 \times 2$ does not equal $6a^2b^3$, so that the trinomial is not a perfect square. Again, $4a^4 + 4a^2b^2 - b^4$ is not a perfect square, because the last term, b^4, is negative. It will be noticed that the second term, $4a^2b^2$, is a perfect square in this case. It must be placed second, however, because it is the only term that is equal to twice the product of the square roots of the other two.

460. In ascertaining whether a trinomial is a perfect square, first find whether the numerical coefficients of two of the terms have like signs and are perfect squares. Then, see if the coefficient of the remaining term is equal to twice the product of the square roots of the coefficients of the other two terms. Lastly, extract the square root of those two terms whose coefficients are perfect squares, and multiply the two results. If twice the product equals the remaining term, the trinomial is a perfect square.

EXAMPLE.—Ascertain whether $4a^2 + 16c^4 - 16ac^2$ is a perfect square.

SOLUTION.—Here all of the coefficients are perfect squares, and the first two terms have like signs. $\sqrt{4} = 2$, and $\sqrt{16} = 4$. Twice the product

of 2 and $4 = (2 \times 4) \times 2 = 16 =$ the coefficient of the remaining term. Lastly, $\sqrt{4a^2} = 2a$ and $\sqrt{16c^4} = 4c^2$, and $(2a \times 4c^2) \times 2 = 16ac^2 =$ the remaining term; hence, the trinomial is a perfect square and is equal to $(2a - 4c^2)(2a - 4c^2)$, or to $(4c^2 - 2a)(4c^2 - 2a)$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Ascertain if $b^2 - 6bd - 9d^2$ is a perfect square.

SOLUTION.—The two terms having like signs are $6bd$ and $9d^2$. Since $6bd$ is not a perfect square, the trinomial is not a perfect square. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Ascertain if $20acd - 4a^2c^2 - 25d^2$ is a perfect square.

SOLUTION.—The two terms having like signs are $-4a^2c^2$ and $-25d^2$. According to Art. **456**, these two terms must be positive. Therefore, dividing the trinomial by -1, i. e., changing all the signs, it becomes $-(4a^2c^2 + 25d^2 - 20acd)$. The two terms having like signs are now perfect squares, and twice the product of their square roots is $(2ac \times 5d) \times 2 = 20acd =$ the remaining term. Consequently, the trinomial is a perfect square and is equal to $-(2ac - 5d)^2$, or $-(5d - 2ac)^2$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Ascertain if $4m^4n^2 - 3m^2np + 4p^2$ is a perfect square.

SOLUTION.—The first and last terms have like signs and their coefficients are perfect squares, but the coefficient of the remaining term is not equal to twice the product of the square roots of the coefficients of the other two terms. Therefore, the trinomial is not a perfect square. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

461. Determine which of the following trinomials are perfect squares:

1. $x^2 + xy + y^2$.
2. $a^6 - 2a^3x^2 + x^4$.
3. $m^6 + 16 + 8m^3$.
4. $100 + 22y + y^2$.
5. $x^2y^2 + 30xy + 256$.
6. $16x^2 - 8xyz + y^2z^2$.
7. $m^2 + 2mn - n^2$.

Ans. The 2d, 3d, and 6th.

Factor the following trinomials:

8. $x^2 - 16x + 64$. Ans. $(x - 8)^2$.
9. $n^6 - 26n^3 + 169$. Ans. $(n^3 - 13)^2$.
10. $25x^2 + 70xyz + 49y^2z^2$. Ans. $(5x + 7yz)^2$.
11. $16c^2 + b^2 - 8bc$. Ans. $(4c - b)^2$.
12. $2mx + m^2 + x^2$. Ans. $(m + x)^2$.
13. $a^2b^4c^6 - 2ab^2c^3 + 1$. Ans. $(ab^2c^3 - 1)^2$.

CASE III.

462. *To factor an expression which is the difference between two perfect squares:*

This case is the reverse of Art. **431**, and may be expressed by the formula

$$a^2 - b^2 = (a + b)(a - b), \qquad \textbf{(6.)}$$

which we have from **3**, Art. **432**.

463. Since a may represent one quantity, and b any other quantity, it is evident from formula **6** that any expression which is the difference between two perfect squares may be factored by the following:

Rule.—*Extract the square roots of the first and last terms. Add these roots for the first factor, and subtract the second from the first for the second factor.*

EXAMPLE.—Factor $9x^8y^6 - 4$.

SOLUTION.—The square roots of the first and last terms are $3x^4y^3$ and 2. The sum of these roots is $3x^4y^3 + 2$ and the second subtracted from the first is $3x^4y^3 - 2$. Hence, by formula **6**, letting $a = 3x^4y^3$ and $b = 2$,

$$9x^8y^6 - 4 = (3x^4y^3 + 2)(3x^4y^3 - 2). \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—Factor $(a + b)^2 - m^2n^2$.

SOLUTION.—The square roots of the first and last terms are $a + b$ and mn. The sum of these roots is $a + b + mn$, and the second subtracted from the first is $a + b - mn$. Hence, by formula **6**, letting $a = a + b$ and $b = mn$,

$$(a + b)^2 - m^2n^2 = (a + b + mn)(a + b - mn). \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

464. Factor the following expressions:

1. $a^2 - 16$. Ans. $(a + 4)(a - 4)$.
2. $a^2 - 49c^8$. Ans. $(a + 7c^4)(a - 7c^4)$.
3. $81x^6y^4 - 1$. Ans. $(9x^3y^2 + 1)(9x^3y^2 - 1)$.
4. $(ax + by)^2 - 1$. Ans. $(ax + by + 1)(ax + by - 1)$.
5. $25x^4y^2 - (bx + 1)^2$. Ans. $[5x^2y + (bx + 1)][5x^2y - (bx + 1)] = (5x^2y + bx + 1)(5x^2y - bx - 1)$.
6. $1 - 169x^2y^4z^6$. Ans. $(1 + 13xy^2z^3)(1 - 13xy^2z^3)$.

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465. In example 5, the expression $(bx + 1)^2$ should be regarded as a single term; in fact, any number of terms may be regarded as a single term by enclosing them in parenthesis and operating on them as though they were a single letter.

When solving any examples requiring the application of the rules in Art. **463** or **466**, first ascertain if the numerical coefficients of the two terms are perfect squares or perfect cubes; if not, there is no use of examining further.

CASE IV.

466. *To factor an expression which is the sum or difference of two perfect cubes:*

Letting a represent one quantity and b some other quantity, the sum and difference of two perfect cubes will be represented by $a^3 + b^3$ and $a^3 - b^3$. By actual division it may be shown that

$$(a^3 + b^3) \div (a + b) = a^2 - ab + b^2, \text{ and}$$
$$(a^3 - b^3) \div (a - b) = a^2 + ab + b^2.$$

Hence, any expression which is the sum or difference of two perfect cubes may be factored as follows:

Rule.—*Extract the cube root of each term. Connect the results by the sign of the second term for the first factor, and obtain the second factor by division.*

It is to be noticed that the second factor will not be a perfect square, because its second term will not be twice the product of the square roots of the other two.

EXAMPLE.—Factor $8x^6 - 27y^9$.

SOLUTION.—The cube root of the first term is $2x^2$, and of the second term $3y^3$; the sign of the second term is minus. Consequently, the first factor is $2x^2 - 3y^3$. The second factor we find by division to be $4x^4 + 6x^2y^3 + 9y^6$. Hence, the factors are $2x^2 - 3y^3$ and $4x^4 + 6x^2y^3 + 9y^6$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

467. Factor the following expressions:

1. $x^3 - y^3$. Ans. $(x - y)(x^2 + xy + y^2)$.
2. $m^3 + 64n^6$. Ans. $(m + 4n^2)(m^2 - 4mn^2 + 16n^4)$.
3. $27a^3 - 8x^3$. Ans. $(3a - 2x)(9a^2 + 6ax + 4x^2)$.
4. $1{,}000 - 27a^6b^6$. Ans. $(10 - 3a^2b)(100 + 30a^2b + 9a^4b^2)$.
5. $1 + 729m^{12}n^{15}$. Ans. $(1 + 9m^4n^5)(1 - 9m^4n^5 + 81m^8n^{10})$.
6. $512a^3 - 64b^3$. Ans. $(8a - 4b)(64a^2 + 32ab + 16b^2)$.

CASE V.

468. Sometimes expressions may be resolved into two or more factors by the application of more than one of the given rules. The student should make himself so familiar with the first four cases that he will be able to determine readily when any of them may be applied.

When Case I is to be used in connection with other cases, it should be applied first.

EXAMPLE.—Factor $3mx^2y^3 - 12my^7$.

SOLUTION.—By Case I, $3mx^2y^3 - 12my^7 = 3my^3(x^2 - 4y^4)$. Factoring the expression in the parenthesis by Case III, $x^2 - 4y^4 = (x + 2y^2)(x - 2y^2)$. Hence, $3mx^2y^3 - 12my^7 = 3my^3(x + 2y^2)(x - 2y^2)$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Factor $80a^2x^2 - 40ax^2 + 5x^2$.

SOLUTION.—By Case I, $80a^2x^2 - 40ax^2 + 5x^2 = 5x^2(16a^2 - 8a + 1)$. Factoring the expression in the parenthesis by Case II, $16a^2 - 8a + 1 = (4a - 1)^2$. Hence, $80a^2x^2 - 40ax^2 + 5x^2 = 5x^2(4a - 1)^2$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Factor $2mn + 1 - m^2 - n^2$.

SOLUTION.—Arrange the expression as follows: $1 - m^2 + 2mn - n^2 = 1 - (m^2 - 2mn + n^2)$. (Art. **408.**) By Case II, this equals $1 - (m - n)^2$. By Case III, this equals $[1 + (m - n)][1 - (m - n)] = (1 + m - n)(1 - m + n)$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Factor $a^6 - b^6$.

SOLUTION.—By Case III, $a^6 - b^6 = (a^3 + b^3)(a^3 - b^3)$. By Case IV, $a^3 + b^3 = (a + b)(a^2 - ab + b^2)$, and $a^3 - b^3 = (a - b)(a^2 + ab + b^2)$. Hence, $a^6 - b^6 = (a + b)(a - b)(a^2 - ab + b^2)(a^2 + ab + b^2)$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Factor $4a^2 + x^4 - c^2 + 2cd + 4ax^2 - d^2$.

SOLUTION.—This may be arranged as follows: $4a^2 + 4ax^2 + x^4 - c^2 + 2cd - d^2 = 4a^2 + 4ax^2 + x^4 - (c^2 - 2cd + d^2)$.

By Case II, this equals $(2a + x^2)^2 - (c - d)^2$. Hence, by Case III, $4a^2 + x^4 - c^2 + 2cd + 4ax^2 - d^2 = (2a + x^2 + c - d)(2a + x^2 - c + d)$. [Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Factor $ac - bc + ad - bd$.

SOLUTION.—We observe that, if the first two and last two terms be factored by Case I, they will each show the same binomial factor, $a - b$. Thus, $ac - bc + ad - bd = (ac - bc) + (ad - bd) = c(a - b) + d(a - b)$. Applying Case I, again, we have (dividing by $a - b$) the factors $(a - b)$ and $(c + d)$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Factor $x^2 + ax - bx - ab$.

SOLUTION.—This example is like the last. Hence, $x^2 + ax - bx - ab = (x^2 + ax) - (bx + ab) = x(x + a) - b(x + a) = (x + a)(x - b)$. Ans.

469. When factoring polynomials which come under Case V, first ascertain whether there is a monomial factor in the expression. If there is one, divide it out and reserve it. If the remaining terms cannot apparently be factored by Cases II, III, and IV, endeavor to so arrange the various terms that they may be factored by the application of some of

the preceding rules. No fixed rules can be given which will cover all of the different expressions which fall under Case V, and the results depend entirely upon the ingenuity of the student, who must have considerable practice before he can factor polynomials successfully. It is important, however, that he should have some knowledge of the process. The explanations to the following examples are more full than those given above, and will probably afford some assistance to understanding the solutions given under Case V:

EXAMPLE.—Factor $ax^6 - ay^6 + b^2x^6 - b^2y^6$.

SOLUTION.—It is readily seen that a is a factor of the first two terms, and b^2 a factor of the last two. Enclosing the first two and last two terms in parentheses, the polynomial becomes $(ax^6 - ay^6) + (b^2x^6 - b^2y^6)$, which, of course, equals $a(x^6 - y^6) + b^2(x^6 - y^6)$. It is now seen that both terms of this *binomial* have the common factor $(x^6 - y^6)$. Dividing it out, the quotient is $a + b^2$. Hence, the required factors are $(a + b^2)$ and $(x^6 - y^6)$. But since x^6 and y^6 are perfect squares, the quantity $x^6 - y^6$ may be factored by Case III. Thus, $x^6 - y^6 = (x^3 + y^3)(x^3 - y^3)$. Both of the factors last obtained may be factored by Case IV. Thus, $x^3 + y^3 = (x^2 - xy + y^2)(x + y)$ and $x^3 - y^3 = (x^2 + xy + y^2)(x - y)$. Therefore, since it is impossible to factor any further, $ax^6 - ay^6 + b^2x^6 - b^2y^6 = (a + b^2)(x^2 - xy + y^2)(x^2 + xy + y^2)(x + y)(x - y)$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Factor $4 - 9m^2 - n^2 + 6mn$.

SOLUTION.—Apparently, none of the rules will apply here; hence, the chief dependence must be placed upon the proper arrangement of the terms. Noticing that the terms $9m^2$ and n^2 are both perfect squares and have like signs, and that the term $6mn$ is twice the product of the square roots of $9m^2$ and n^2, the last three terms are enclosed in parenthesis, and the expression becomes $4 - (9m^2 + n^2 - 6mn)$. The second term of this binomial is a perfect square, according to Art. **456**, and the binomial may be written $4 - (3m - n)^2$, since $(3m - n)^2 = 9m^2 - 6mn + n^2$. The binomial $4 - (3m - n)^2$ may now be factored by Case III, since both terms are perfect squares. Therefore, $4 - (3m - n)^2 =$
$[2 + (3m - n)]\,[2 - (3m - n)] = (2 + 3m - n)(2 - 3m + n)$. Ans.

If the student will carefully study Art. **470**, in connection with Arts. **446—471**, he should experience no great difficulty in factoring. Until he has become accustomed to factoring, the student should prove his work by multiplying the factors together, and comparing the result with the original expression.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

470. Factor the following expressions:

1. $x^4 - y^4$. Apply Case III, twice. Ans. $(x^2 + y^2)(x + y)(x - y)$.
2. $3abx^2 + 3ay^2b + 6axyb$. Apply Cases I and II. Ans. $3ab(x + y)^2$.
3. $a^4b^2 - ab^5$. Apply Cases I and IV. Ans. $ab^2(a - b)(a^2 + ab + b^2)$.
4. $2bc - b^2 - c^2 + 4$. Ans. $(2 + b - c)(2 - b + c)$.
5. $16m^2 - 25d^4 + 4n^2 + 16mn$. Ans. $(4m + 2n + 5d^2)(4m + 2n - 5d^2)$.
6. $y^2 - ay + by - ab$. Ans. $(y - a)(y + b)$.
7. $c^2 - 1 + 4x - 4x^2 - 2cd^2 + d^4$. Apply Cases II and III, after arranging the terms as follows: $(c^2 - 2cd^2 + d^4) - (4x^2 - 4x + 1)$.
Ans. $(c - d^2 + 2x - 1)(c - d^2 - 2x + 1)$.
8. $a^2 - x^2 - 1 + 2x$. Apply Cases II and III.
Ans. $(a + 1 - x)(a - 1 + x)$.
9. $4b^3 - 16ab^2 + 16a^2b^3$. Apply Cases I and II. Ans. $4b^3(1 - 2a)^2$.
10. $x^8 - m^8$. Ans. $(x^4 + m^4)(x^2 + m^2)(x + m)(x - m)$.

CASE VI.

471. Expressions of the form $a^n \pm b^n$ frequently occur, in which n is an integer (whole number). The sign $\pm$ is read *plus or minus*, and means that either sign may be used. *One of the factors will be $a + b$, when n is an* **even** *number (2, 4, 6, etc.), and the connecting sign is $-$, or when n is an odd number (3, 5, 7, etc.,) and the connecting sign is $+$. When the connecting sign is $-$, $a - b$ is* ***always*** *a factor.* $a^n + b^n$ cannot be factored when n is an even number, unless n has a value, $2p$, p being any number greater than 1.

Thus, $x^4 - y^4$ may be divided by $x + y$, and also by $x - y$; $x^4 + y^4$ cannot be factored; $x^5 + y^5$ may be divided by $x + y$; $x^5 - y^5$ may be divided by $x - y$. $x^6 + y^6$ can be factored, since it equals $x^{2\times3} + y^{2\times3}$; it is divisible by $x^2 + y^2$.

LEAST COMMON MULTIPLE.

472. The **least common multiple** (L. C. M.) of two or more quantities is the least quantity that may be divided by each without a remainder. When the quantities have no common factor, the L. C. M. will be their product; but when they have a common factor, a quantity less than their product may be found that each will exactly divide.

473. To obtain the L. C. M. of two or more quantities:

Rule.—*Find all the factors of each quantity. Select the smallest number of these necessary to form a product that each quantity will divide without a remainder. The product of the factors selected will be the L. C. M.*

EXAMPLE.—Find the L. C. M. of $x^2+2xy+y^2$, x^2-y^2, and $x-y$.

SOLUTION.—Factoring each quantity,

$$x^2+2xy+y^2=(x+y)(x+y). \quad (1)$$
$$x^2-y^2 \quad =(x+y)(x-y). \quad (2)$$
$$x-y \quad = x-y. \quad (3)$$

To be divisible by (1), the L. C. M. must evidently contain the factors $(x+y)(x+y)$; hence, we select these for two factors. To be divisible by (2), it must contain the factors $(x+y)(x-y)$; but, as a factor $x+y$ was taken before, it is necessary to select only the $x-y$. To be divisible by (3), the L. C. M. must contain $x-y$; but as a factor $x-y$ has already been taken, this is not to be selected. Now, expressing the product of the factors selected, we have as the L. C. M. $(x+y)(x+y)(x-y)=(x+y)^2(x-y)$, which is the least quantity that each of the other quantities will exactly divide. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Find the L. C. M. of $36ab^2$, $12a^2b^2$, and $50abc$.

SOLUTION.—Factoring,.

$$36ab^2 = 3\times3\times2\times2\times a\times b\times b. \quad (1)$$
$$12a^2b^2 = 3\times2\times2\times a\times a\times b\times b. \quad (2)$$
$$50abc = 5\times5\times2\times a\times b\times c. \quad (3)$$

To be divisible by (1), the L. C. M. must contain all the factors of (1); hence, we select these. To be divisible by (2), it must contain, in addition to those already selected, the factor a, which we select. To be divisible by (3), it must contain, in addition to the factors taken, the factors 5, 5, and c, which we select. The product of the factors selected is $3\times3\times2\times2\times a\times b\times b\times a\times5\times5\times c=900a^2b^2c$, the L. C. M. [Ans.

474. The following method of finding the L. C. M. of several quantities is, perhaps, easier to understand and apply than that given in the above. It will be explained by means of examples:

EXAMPLE.—Find the L. C. M. of (x^3-1), (x^2-1), and $(x+1)$.

SOLUTION.—Factor each quantity as follows:

$x^3-1=(x^2+x+1)(x-1)$; $x^2-1=(x+1)(x-1)$, and $x+1=x+1$. Arrange these in a row, separating the different quantities by commas, thus,

$x-1$	$(x^2+x+1)(x-1)$,	$(x+1)(x-1)$,	$x+1$
$x+1$	x^2+x+1,	$x+1$	$x+1$
	x^2+x+1,	1.	1

Now, select some factor and divide each quantity by it, if possible; if any quantity cannot be thus divided, bring it down. Selecting $x-1$ and dividing each quantity by it, the result is x^2+x+1, $x+1$ and $x+1$. Dividing the remaining quantities by another factor, as $x+1$, the result is x^2+x+1. Multiplying this last remainder and the two preceding divisors together, the result is $(x^2+x+1)(x+1)$, $(x-1)$, the L. C. M. Ans.

Applying the above method to the first example in Art. **473**,

$$\begin{array}{r|lll} x+y & (x+y)(x+y), & (x+y)(x-y), & x-y \\ \hline x-y & x+y, & x-y, & x-y \\ \hline & x+y, & 1, & 1 \end{array}$$

Hence, the L. C. M. is $(x+y)(x-y)(x+y)$. Ans.

Applying this method to the second example in Art. **473**,

$$\begin{array}{r|lll} 2ab & 36ab^2, & 12a^2b^2, & 50abc \\ \hline 6b & 18b, & 6ab, & 25c \\ \hline 3 & 3, & a, & 25c \\ \hline a & 1, & a, & 25c \\ \hline & 1, & 1, & 25c \end{array}$$

Hence, the L. C. M. $= 2ab \times 6b \times 3 \times a \times 25c = 900a^2b^2c$. Ans.

475. The L. C. M. may often be found by inspection.

EXAMPLE.—Find the L. C. M. of x^3-y^3 and $x-y$.

SOLUTION.—The least quantity that x^3-y^3 will exactly divide is x^3-y^3. As $x-y$ will also divide this without a remainder, x^3-y^3 is evidently the L. C. M.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

476. Find the L. C. M. of the following:

1. $9a^3b^4$, $18a^2b^2$, and $15a^2b$. Ans. $90a^3b^4$.
2. $2x+1$ and $2(4x^2-1)$. Ans. $2(4x^2-1)$.
3. a^2-b^2 and a^3-b^3. Ans. $(a+b)(a^3-b^3)$.
4. $2a-1$, $4a^2-1$, and $4a^2+1$. Ans. $16a^4-1$.
5. $2a^2+2ab$, $3ab-3b^2$, and $4a^2c-4b^2c$. Ans. $12abc(a^2-b^2)$.

FRACTIONS.

477. A **fraction,** in Algebra, is considered as an expression indicating division. The sign $\div$ is seldom used, it being more convenient to write the dividend, or quantity to be divided, above a horizontal line, with the divisor below it, in the form of a fraction.

478. Thus, the fraction $\frac{a+b}{c-d}$ means that $a+b$ is to be divided by $c-d$, and is the same as $(a+b) \div (c-d)$. It is read "$a+b$ divided by $c-d$," or "$a+b$ *over* $c-d$." All fractions are read in this way in Algebra, except simple numerical fractions, as $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{25}{32}$, etc., which are read as in arithmetic.

479. The dividend, or quantity above the line, is called the **numerator,** and the divisor, or quantity below the line, the **denominator.** The numerator and denominator are called the **terms** of a fraction.

480. Any whole number or quantity may be taken as a fraction with a denominator of 1, and in this treatment of fractions it will be considered as such. Thus, 24 is the same as $\frac{24}{1}$, since $24 \div 1 = 24$. The student should observe the difference between this and the definition of a reciprocal which follows.

481. A **reciprocal** of a quantity is 1 divided by that quantity; that is, a reciprocal is a fraction having the number 1 for its numerator. The reciprocal of 5 is $1 \div 5 = \frac{1}{5}$; the reciprocal of $x^2 + a$ is $\frac{1}{x^2+a}$. The reciprocal of a number may be found by dividing 1 by that number; or a number may be found from its reciprocal by dividing 1 by the reciprocal. For example, the reciprocal of $250 = 1 \div 250 = .004$; the number whose reciprocal is .004 is $1 \div .004 = \frac{1}{.004} = 250$.

482. The **signs of a fraction** are three in number: namely, the sign before the dividing line, which indicates whether the fraction is to be added or subtracted (if this sign is $+$, it is always omitted when the fraction stands alone), and the signs of the numerator and denominator. *Any two signs of a fraction may be changed without altering its value, but if any one, or all three be changed, the value of the fraction will be changed from $+$ to $-$ or from $-$ to $+$.* These principles can be shown to follow from Art. **436.** If the numerator or denominator is a polynomial, its sign belongs to the entire numerator or denominator; and *when changing signs, care must be taken to change the sign before each term* in the numerator or denominator. Thus, with the signs before the dividing line and numerator changed,

$$\frac{a-b}{c-d}=\frac{-a+b}{c-d}, \text{ not } \frac{-a-b}{c-d}.$$

That $-\frac{a-b}{c-d}=-\frac{-a+b}{-c+d}, +\frac{-a+b}{c-d}$ or $+\frac{a-b}{-c+d}$ can be readily shown. It is evident, from the laws of fractions, that, if both numerator and denominator be multiplied by the same quantity, the *value* of the fraction will not be changed. Multiplying both terms of the fraction $-\frac{a-b}{c-d}$ by -1, we get $-\frac{-(a-b)}{-(c-d)}=-\frac{-a+b}{-c+d}$. Again, multiplying *and* dividing a quantity by another quantity does not alter the value of the quantity. For instance, $2=2\times\frac{4}{4}$. Now, the sign before the dividing line of a fraction applies to the whole fraction. Hence, $-\frac{a-b}{c-d}=-\left(\frac{a-b}{c-d}\right)$. Multiplying this last expression by -1, it becomes $+\left(\frac{a-b}{c-d}\right)=\frac{a-b}{c-d}$. To divide a fraction by any quantity, we may divide the numerator or multiply the denominator. Dividing the numerator of the last expression by -1, the fraction becomes $\frac{-(a-b)}{c-d}=\frac{-a+b}{c-d}$; multiplying the denominator,

it becomes $\frac{a-b}{-(c-d)} = \frac{a-b}{-c+d}$. Therefore, $-\frac{a-b}{c-d} = -\frac{-a+b}{-c+d} = \frac{-a+b}{c-d} = \frac{a-b}{-c+d}$.

If the above demonstration is not satisfactory, let the student substitute numerical values for a, b, c, and d.

REDUCTION OF FRACTIONS.

483. To reduce a fraction is to change its form without changing its value. Thus, $\frac{10x}{5}$ and $\frac{20x}{10}$ have different forms, but like values, since $10x \div 5$ and $20x \div 10$ are each equal to $2x$.

In reducing fractions we have the general rule that the numerator and denominator may both be multiplied, or both divided, by the same quantity without changing the value of the fraction.

484. To reduce a fraction to its simplest form:

Rule.—*Resolve the numerator and denominator into their factors and cancel those that are common to both.*

This is in effect the same as dividing both numerator and denominator by the same quantity, and does not change the value of the fraction.

485. *In reducing, or performing other operations upon fractions, the student must learn to use polynomial factors, wherever they occur, as though they were one quantity—like monomial factors.* This is illustrated in the following examples, where there are polynomial factors in both numerator and denominator that can be canceled. (See Art. **391.**)

EXAMPLE.—Reduce $\frac{x^2+2xy+y^2}{x^2-y^2}$ to its simplest form.

SOLUTION.—Factoring both numerator and denominator,

$$\frac{x^2+2xy+y^2}{x^2-y^2} = \frac{(x+y)(x+y)}{(x+y)(x-y)}.$$

Canceling the common factor $x+y$ from both, gives, as the result,

$$\frac{\cancel{(x+y)}(x+y)}{\cancel{(x+y)}(x-y)}=\frac{x+y}{x-y}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—Reduce $\frac{3x^5-6x^4y}{6x^2y^2-12xy^3}$ to its simplest form.

SOLUTION.— $\frac{3x^5-6x^4y}{6x^2y^2-12xy^3}=\frac{3x^4(x-2y)}{6xy^2(x-2y)}$, when factored.

Canceling the common factors, we have, as the result,

$$\frac{\overset{x^3}{\cancel{3x^4}}\cancel{(x-2y)}}{\underset{2}{\cancel{6}}xy^2\cancel{(x-2y)}}=\frac{x^3}{2y^2}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

486. Sometimes the whole numerator is contained in the denominator, or the denominator in the numerator. The numerator or denominator will then reduce to the number 1.

EXAMPLE.—Reduce $\frac{b+3c^2}{2b^2+6bc^2}$ to its simplest form.

SOLUTION.— $\frac{b+3c^2}{2b^2+6bc^2}=\frac{\cancel{b+3c^2}}{2b\cancel{(b+3c^2)}}=\frac{1}{2b}$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Reduce $\frac{x^6-1}{x^3-1}$ to its simplest form.

SOLUTION.— $\frac{x^6-1}{x^3-1}=\frac{(x^3+1)\cancel{(x^3-1)}}{\cancel{x^3-1}}=\frac{x^3+1}{1}=x^3+1$. Ans.

(Art. **480.**)

487. From the last example it will be seen that division may sometimes be performed by cancelation. Thus, $\frac{x^6-1}{x^3-1}$ means $(x^6-1)\div(x^3-1)$, and the divisor x^3-1 canceled from the dividend x^6-1 gives the quotient x^3+1. A factor must be common to each term of the numerator and to each term of the denominator in order to be canceled. Thus, the factor x cannot be canceled from $\frac{3ax}{x+4m}$, because it is not common to both terms of the denominator.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

488. Reduce the following to their simplest form:

1. $\dfrac{m^3 - n^3}{m(m^2 + mn + n^2)}$. Ans. $\dfrac{m-n}{m}$.
2. $\dfrac{3a + 3b}{a^2 - b^2}$. Ans. $\dfrac{3}{a-b}$.
3. $\dfrac{x^4 - y^4}{x^2 - y^2}$. Ans. $x^2 + y^2$.
4. $\dfrac{54a^3b^5c^6}{72a^2b^2c}$. Ans. $\dfrac{3ab^3c}{4}$.
5. $\dfrac{12a^2x^3}{36a^3x^5}$. Ans. $\dfrac{1}{3ax^2}$.
6. $\dfrac{n^3 - 9n^2}{n^2 - 4n + 4}$. Ans. $\dfrac{n^2}{n-2}$.

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489. When fractions are to be added or subtracted, it is necessary to so reduce them that all the denominators will be alike. This is called **reducing them to a common denominator.** The common denominator may be any multiple of the given denominators, but it is always better that it should be the *least* common multiple, also called the *least common denominator.*

490. To reduce fractions to a common denominator:

Rule.—*Find the L. C. M. of the given denominators. Divide this by each denominator. Multiply the corresponding numerators by each quotient for the new numerators, and write the results over the common denominators.*

This is in effect the same as multiplying both numerator and denominator by the same quantity, which, by Art. **483,** does not change the value of the fraction. Before applying the rule, all fractions should be reduced to their simplest form.

EXAMPLE.—Reduce $\dfrac{1}{1-b}$, $\dfrac{4}{(1-b)^2}$, and $\dfrac{8}{(1-b)^3}$ to a common denominator.

SOLUTION.—The L. C. M. of the denominators is $(1-b)^3$, since this is the least quantity that each denominator will divide without a remainder. Dividing this by $1-b$, the first denominator (use the method of Art. **487**), the quotient is $(1-b)^2$; dividing it by $(1-b)^2$, the second denominator, the quotient is $(1-b)$; dividing it by the

third denominator, the quotient is 1. Multiplying the corresponding numerators by these quotients, we obtain as the new numerators, $1 \times (1-b)^2 = (1-b)^2$, $4 \times (1-b) = 4(1-b)$ and $3 \times 1 = 3$. Hence the reduced fractions are $\frac{(1-b)^2}{(1-b)^3}$, $\frac{4(1-b)}{(1-b)^3}$ and $\frac{3}{(1-b)^3}$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

491. Reduce the following to a common denominator:

1. $\frac{3yz}{2x}$, $\frac{4xz}{3y}$ and $\frac{5xy}{4z}$. Ans. $\frac{18y^2z^2}{12xyz}$, $\frac{16x^2z^2}{12xyz}$ and $\frac{15x^2y^2}{12xyz}$.
2. $\frac{x^2y}{10}$, $\frac{xyz}{15}$ and $\frac{7yz^2}{30}$. Ans. $\frac{3x^2y}{30}$, $\frac{2xyz}{30}$ and $\frac{7yz^2}{30}$.
3. $\frac{2}{a^3x^3}$, $\frac{3}{ax^3}$ and $\frac{4}{a^2x}$. Ans. $\frac{2}{a^3x^3}$, $\frac{3a^2}{a^3x^3}$ and $\frac{4ax^2}{a^3x^3}$.
4. $\frac{m+n}{m-n}$ and $\frac{m-n}{m+n}$. Ans. $\frac{m^2+2mn+n^2}{m^2-n^2}$ and $\frac{m^2-2mn+n^2}{m^2-n^2}$.
5. $\frac{2}{x}$, $\frac{3}{2x-1}$ and $\frac{2x-1}{4x^2-1}$.

   Ans. $\frac{2(4x^2-1)}{x(4x^2-1)}$, $\frac{3x(2x+1)}{x(4x^2-1)}$ and $\frac{x(2x-1)}{x(4x^2-1)}$.

ADDITION AND SUBTRACTION OF FRACTIONS.

492. To add or subtract fractions:

Rule.—*Reduce them, if necessary, to a common denominator. Add or subtract the numerators, and write the result over the common denominator.*

EXAMPLE.—Find the sum of $\frac{2a-b}{5}$ and $\frac{a+b}{4}$.

SOLUTION.—$\frac{2a-b}{5}$ and $\frac{a+b}{4}$ reduced to a common denominator become $\frac{4(2a-b)}{20}$ and $\frac{5(a+b)}{20}$, which equal $\frac{8a-4b}{20}$ and $\frac{5a+5b}{20}$. Adding the numerators, we have $8a-4b+5a+5b=13a+b$. The result written over the common denominator gives, as the sum, $\frac{13a+b}{20}$. The work is written as follows:

$$\frac{2a-b}{5}+\frac{a+b}{4}=\frac{8a-4b}{20}+\frac{5a+5b}{20}=$$

$$\frac{8a-4b+5a+5b}{20}=\frac{13a+b}{20}. \text{ Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—Subtract $\frac{6b-2}{3b}$ from $\frac{4a-1}{2a}$.

SOLUTION.— $\frac{4a-1}{2a} - \frac{6b-2}{3b} = \frac{12ab-3b}{6ab} - \frac{12ab-4a}{6ab}$, when reduced to a common denominator. Subtracting the second numerator from the first, and writing the result over the common denominator, we have $\frac{12ab-3b}{6ab} - \frac{12ab-4a}{6ab} = \frac{(12ab-3b)-(12ab-4a)}{6ab} = \frac{12ab-3b-12ab+4a}{6ab}$, with the parentheses removed. Combining like terms in the numerator gives, as the result, $\frac{4a-3b}{6ab}$. Ans.

493. *If, as in the last example, the numerator of the fraction to be subtracted has more than one term, care must be taken to change the sign of every term before combining.* It will usually be convenient to inclose the whole numerator in a parenthesis before combining. The parenthesis may then be removed by the rules of Arts. **405** and **406.**

EXAMPLE.—Simplify $\frac{x^3}{x-1} - \frac{x^2}{x+1} - \frac{x}{x-1} + \frac{1}{x+1}$.

SOLUTION.—Reducing to the common denominator, x^2-1,

$$\frac{x^3}{x-1} - \frac{x^2}{x+1} - \frac{x}{x-1} + \frac{1}{x+1} = \frac{x^4+x^3}{x^2-1} - \frac{x^3-x^2}{x^2-1} - \frac{x^2+x}{x^2-1} + \frac{x-1}{x^2-1}.$$

Adding or subtracting the numerators as required, we have

$$\frac{(x^4+x^3)-(x^3-x^2)-(x^2+x)+(x-1)}{x^2-1},$$

which, with the parentheses removed, =

$$\frac{x^4+x^3-x^3+x^2-x^2-x+x-1}{x^2-1}.$$

Combining like terms we have, as the result,

$$\frac{x^4-1}{x^2-1} = x^2+1. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—Simplify $\frac{1}{(x-2)^2} + \frac{1}{2-x}$.

SOLUTION.—If the denominator of the second fraction were written $x-2$ instead of $2-x$, $(x-2)^2$ would be the common denominator. By Art. **482,** the signs of the denominator and the sign before the fraction $\frac{1}{2-x}$ may be changed, giving $-\frac{1}{-2+x} = -\frac{1}{x-2}$. (Art. **373.**) Hence, we have $\frac{1}{(x-2)^2} + \frac{1}{2-x} = \frac{1}{(x-2)^2} - \frac{1}{x-2}$, which, when reduced to a common denominator, =

$$\frac{1}{(x-2)^2} - \frac{x-2}{(x-2)^2} = \frac{1-(x-2)}{(x-2)^2} = \frac{1-x+2}{(x-2)^2} = \frac{3-x}{(x-2)^2}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

494. Simplify the following:

1. $\frac{x}{3}+\frac{x}{4}+\frac{x}{5}$. Ans. $\frac{47x}{60}$.

2. $\frac{4x-3}{5}+\frac{7x+1}{3}+\frac{3x}{2}$. Ans. $\frac{139x-8}{30}$.

3. $\frac{1}{x-y}-\frac{1}{x^2-y^2}$. Ans. $\frac{x+y-1}{x^2-y^2}$.

4. $\frac{a^2+b^2}{2}-\frac{(a+b)^2}{4}$. Ans. $\frac{2(a^2+b^2)-(a^2+2ab+b^2)}{4}=\frac{(a-b)^2}{4}$, after removing parentheses and combining.

5. $\frac{a^2}{a^2-1}+\frac{a}{a-1}-\frac{a}{a+1}$. Ans. $\frac{a^2+2a}{a^2-1}$.

6. $\frac{4m^2+1}{4m^3}-\frac{3m-1}{12m^3}+\frac{1-12n}{12n}$. Ans. $\frac{n+m^3}{12m^3n}$.

7. $\frac{y}{(x+y)^2}+\frac{y}{x^2-y^2}-\frac{1}{x+y}$.

Ans. $\frac{y(x-y)+y(x+y)-(x^2-y^2)}{(x+y)^2(x-y)}=\frac{2xy-x^2+y^2}{x^3+x^2y-xy^2-y^3}$.

8. $\frac{x}{x+1}+\frac{x}{1-x}+\frac{3x}{x^2-1}$. Ans. $\frac{x}{x^2-1}$.

MULTIPLICATION OF FRACTIONS.

495. Multiplication, in fractions, is the process of finding a fractional part of a fraction. Thus, $\frac{3}{4}\times\frac{1}{2}$ means $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{3}{4}$. One-half of $\frac{3}{4}$ inch, for example, is $\frac{3}{8}$ inch; $\frac{2}{3}$ of $\frac{3}{4}$ inch is $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{6}{12}$ inch. The result in each case is the same as that which would be obtained by finding the product of the numerators, and writing it over the product of the denominators.

496. Hence, to multiply fractions:

Rule.—*Multiply the numerators together for the numerator of the product, and the denominators together for the denominator of the product.*

497. Two or more fractions may be multiplied together. Common factors in the numerators and denominators should be canceled before performing the multiplication, and the product should be reduced to its simplest form.

EXAMPLE.—Find the product of $\frac{6a^2}{5}$, $\frac{2ab}{3c}$ and $\frac{2ac}{b^2}$.

SOLUTION.—The product of the numerators is $6a^2 \times 2ab \times 2ac = 24a^4bc$, and of the denominators, $5 \times 3c \times b^2 = 15b^2c$. Writing $24a^4bc$ over $15b^2c$, we have, for the product, $\frac{24a^4bc}{15b^2c} = \frac{8a^4}{5b}$ when reduced to its lowest terms. The work is written as follows:

$$\frac{\overset{2}{\cancel{6}}a^2}{5} \times \frac{2a\cancel{b}}{\cancel{3c}} \times \frac{2a\cancel{c}}{\underset{b}{\cancel{b^2}}} = \frac{8a^4}{5b}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—Find the product of $3m^3n^4$ and $\frac{11x^2}{x+4mn}$.

SOLUTION.—By Art **480**, $3m^3n^4 = \frac{3m^3n^4}{1}$. The product of the numerators is $3m^3n^4 \times 11x^2 = 33m^3n^4x^2$, and of the denominators, $1 \times (x+4mn) = x+4mn$. Hence,

$$3m^3n^4 \times \frac{11x^2}{x+4mn} = \frac{3 \times 11m^3n^4x^2}{x+4mn} = \frac{33m^3n^4x^2}{x+4mn}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

498. When the numerators or denominators consist of more than one term they should be factored, if possible, to aid in canceling the common factors of the result.

EXAMPLE.—Find the product of $\frac{x^2+2x}{(x-1)^2}$, $\frac{x^2-1}{x-2}$, and $\frac{x^2-4x+4}{x+2}$.

SOLUTION.—Factoring the numerators and denominators of the fractions, and writing the factors of the numerators together over the factors of the denominators, we have $\frac{x^2+2x}{(x-1)^2} \times \frac{x^2-1}{x-2} \times \frac{x^2-4x+4}{x+2} =$

$$\frac{\cancel{x(x+2)}(x+1)\cancel{(x-1)}\cancel{(x-2)}(x-2)}{\cancel{(x-1)}(x-1)\cancel{(x-2)}\cancel{(x+2)}} = \frac{x(x+1)(x-2)}{x-1}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

499. To multiply expressions in which addition or subtraction is indicated, first perform the addition or subtraction.

EXAMPLE.—Find the product of $\frac{1}{a^2} - \frac{4c^2}{a}$ and $\frac{a^2}{1+2ac}$.

SOLUTION.—Performing the subtraction, $\frac{1}{a^2} - \frac{4c^2}{a} = \frac{1-4a^2c^3}{a^2}$.

Multiplying, $\frac{1-4a^2c^3}{a^2} \times \frac{a^2}{1+2ac} = \frac{\overset{1-2ac}{\cancel{(1-4a^2c^3)}}\cancel{a^2}}{\cancel{(1+2ac)}\cancel{a^2}} = 1-2ac.$ Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

500. Multiply the following:

1. $\frac{3a^2bc}{5abc^2}$ by $\frac{10ab^2c}{3abc}$. Ans. $\frac{2ab}{c}$.

2. $\frac{5x^2y}{7x}$ by $21xy$. Ans. $15x^2y^2$.

Find the product of

3. $\frac{3x^2y}{4xz^2}$, $\frac{5y^2z}{6xy}$ and $\frac{-12x^2}{2xy^2}$. Ans. $\frac{15x}{4z}$.

4. $\frac{x^2-y^2}{c^2-d^2}$, $\frac{c-d}{(x+y)^2}$ and $\frac{x^3+y^3}{x-y}$. Ans. $\frac{x^2-xy+y^2}{c^2+cd+d^2}$.

5. $\frac{4y}{x}-\frac{16}{xy}$ and $\frac{1}{2y+4}$. Ans. $\frac{2y-4}{xy}$.

6. $\frac{a+b}{2}+\frac{a-b}{4}$ and $\frac{4}{9a^2+6ab+b^2}$. Ans. $\frac{1}{3a+b}$.

DIVISION OF FRACTIONS.

501. Division, in fractions, is the process of finding how many times one fraction is contained in another. For example, $\frac{1}{4}$ inch is contained in $\frac{3}{4}$ inch 3 times; $\frac{3}{4}$ inch is contained in $\frac{3}{2}$ inches 2 times. The result in each case is the same as that which would be obtained by multiplying the denominator of the first fraction by the numerator of the second for the numerator of the quotient, and the numerator of the first fraction by the denominator of the second for the denominator of the quotient.

502. Hence, to divide by a fraction:

Rule.—*Invert the divisor, and proceed as in multiplication.*

EXAMPLE.—Divide $\frac{3a^2b}{5x^3y}$ by $\frac{9ab^3}{10x^4y^2}$.

SOLUTION.—The divisor inverted $=\frac{10x^4y^2}{9ab^3}$.

Hence, $\frac{3a^2b}{5x^3y}\div\frac{9ab^3}{10x^4y^2}=\frac{3a^2b}{5x^3y}\times\frac{10x^4y^2}{9ab^3}=\frac{\cancel{3}\times\overset{2a}{\cancel{10}}\cancel{a^2}\cancel{b}\overset{x}{\cancel{x^4}}\overset{y}{\cancel{y^2}}}{\cancel{5}\times\underset{3}{\cancel{9}}\cancel{ab^3}\underset{b^2}{\cancel{x^3}}\cancel{y}}=\frac{2axy}{3b^2}$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Divide x^2+2x+1 by $\frac{x+1}{x-1}$.

SOLUTION.—By Art. **480**, $(x^2+2x+1)\div\frac{x+1}{x-1}=\frac{x^2+2x+1}{1}\times\frac{x-1}{x+1}$

$=\frac{\cancel{(x+1)}(x+1)(x-1)}{\cancel{x+1}}=x^2-1$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

503. Divide the following:

1. $\frac{9x^3 - 8x^4}{24}$ by $\frac{3x}{8}$. Ans. $\frac{3x^4 - x^3}{3}$.
2. $\frac{ab - bx}{a + z}$ by $\frac{ac - cx}{a + z}$. Ans. $\frac{b}{c}$.
3. $\frac{1 - 8b^2 + 16b^4}{1 + 2b}$ by $\frac{1 - 4b^2}{3a}$. Ans. $3a(1-2b)$.
4. $6a^2cd - 6abcd$ by $\frac{6acd}{a^2 + ab + b^2}$. Ans. $a^3 - b^3$.

MIXED QUANTITIES AND COMPLEX FRACTIONS.

504. A **mixed quantity** is an expression containing both integral and fractional parts, as $2a^2 - \frac{c + d}{4}$. Considering the integral part as a fraction with a denominator of 1 (Art. **480**), a mixed quantity becomes simply the indicated addition or subtraction of two fractions; thus, $2a^2 - \frac{c + d}{4} = \frac{2a^2}{1} - \frac{c + d}{4}$. By *integral part* is meant any expression which does not contain fractions or negative exponents.

505. Any fraction may be reduced to either an entire or mixed quantity by dividing the numerator by the denominator. It frequently happens that by performing the indicated division, the fraction will be reduced to a simpler form. The case of reducing a fraction to an entire quantity was taken up in Art. **486**.

EXAMPLE.—Simplify $\frac{4x^2 + 12x - 1}{2x + 3}$.

SOLUTION.—Performing the indicated division,

$$
\begin{array}{l}
2x + 3 \,)\, 4x^2 + 12x - 1 \,(\, 2x + 3 - \frac{10}{2x + 3} \quad \textbf{Ans.} \\
\underline{4x^2 + 6x} \\
\quad 6x - 1 \\
\quad \underline{6x + 9} \\
\quad\quad -10
\end{array}
$$

When any operation, as multiplication or division, is to be performed with a mixed quantity, it is sometimes easier to first reduce it to a fraction.

506. To reduce a mixed quantity to a fraction:

Rule.—*Consider the integral part to be a fraction with a denominator of 1, and perform the indicated addition or subtraction.*

EXAMPLE.—Reduce $x^2 + xy + y^2 - \frac{b}{x-y}$ to a fraction.

SOLUTION.— $x^2 + xy + y^2 - \frac{b}{x-y} = \frac{x^2 + xy + y^2}{1} - \frac{b}{x-y}$; subtracting the second fraction from the first gives

$$\frac{(x^2 + xy + y^2)(x-y) - b}{x-y} = \frac{x^3 - y^3 - b}{x-y}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—Multiply $\frac{a}{a+x} + \frac{a}{a-x}$ by $1 + \frac{a^2 + x^2}{2ax}$.

Performing the additions,

SOLUTION.—$\frac{a}{a+x} + \frac{a}{a-x} = \frac{2a^2}{a^2 - x^2}$; $1 + \frac{a^2 + x^2}{2ax} = \frac{a^2 + 2ax + x^2}{2ax}$.

Multiplying, $\frac{\overset{a}{\cancel{2a^2}}}{\underset{a-x}{\cancel{a^2 - x^2}}} \times \frac{\overset{a+x}{\cancel{a^2 + 2ax + x^2}}}{\cancel{2ax}} = \frac{a(a+x)}{x(a-x)}$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

507. Solve the following:

1. Reduce $\frac{a^2c + b^2}{c}$ to a mixed quantity. Ans. $a^2 + \frac{b^2}{c}$.
2. Simplify $\frac{x^2 + 4xy + 5y^2 - 3x}{x + 2y}$ Ans. $x + 2y - 3 + \frac{y^2 + 6y}{x + 2y}$.
3. Reduce $x + 3 - \frac{7x + 3}{2x + 1}$ to a fraction. Ans. $\frac{2x^2}{2x + 1}$.
4. From $3a + \frac{a + b}{d}$ subtract $a - \frac{a - b}{d}$.

   Ans. $2a + \frac{2a}{d} = \frac{2a(d + 1)}{d}$.
5. Divide $m + n - \frac{2n}{m - n}$ by $m - n - \frac{2n}{m + n}$. Ans. $\frac{m + n}{m - n}$.

---

508. A **complex fraction** is one having a fraction in its numerator, or denominator, or both. Since any fraction is an expression of division, a complex fraction may be simplified by dividing the part above the line by the part below it. Thus, the complex fraction $\frac{\frac{5}{8}}{\frac{3}{4}} = \frac{5}{8} \div \frac{3}{4}$; inverting the divisor and multiplying, $\frac{5}{8} \times \frac{4}{3} = \frac{5}{6}$.

The same result would have been obtained if both terms had been multiplied by the least common denominator of the denominators of the fractions in the numerator and denominator. Thus, $\frac{\frac{5}{8} \times 8}{\frac{3}{4} \times 8} = \frac{5}{6}$.

The latter is generally the simpler method to use.

509. Hence, to simplify a complex fraction:

Rule.—*Multiply both terms by the least common denominator of the denominators of the fractional parts.*

EXAMPLE.—Simplify $\dfrac{\frac{x}{y} - \frac{y}{x}}{\frac{1}{y} - \frac{1}{x}}$.

SOLUTION.—The least common denominator of the denominators is xy. Multiplying each term by this, we have

$$\frac{\frac{x}{y} \times xy - \frac{y}{x} \times xy}{\frac{1}{y} \times xy - \frac{1}{x} \times xy} = \frac{x^2 - y^2}{x - y} = x + y. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

The multiplication can generally be performed mentally, without writing the least common denominator, at the same time canceling common factors.

EXAMPLE.—Simplify $\dfrac{x^2 + \frac{1}{x}}{1 + \frac{1}{x}}$.

SOLUTION.—The L. C. D. is x. Multiplying each term by this, we have

$$\frac{x^3 + 1}{x + 1} = x^2 - x + 1. \quad \text{Ans.} \quad \text{(Art. 466.)}$$

EXAMPLE.—Simplify $\dfrac{1}{1 + \dfrac{a}{1 + a + \dfrac{2a^2}{1 - a}}}$.

SOLUTION.—This is the case of a complex fraction in which the denominator is itself a complex fraction.

First, consider the part $\dfrac{a}{1 + a + \dfrac{2a^2}{1 - a}}$.

Multiplying both terms by $1 - a$, we have

$$\frac{a(1 - a)}{(1 + a)(1 - a) + 2a^2} = \frac{a - a^2}{1 - a^2 + 2a^2} = \frac{a - a^2}{1 + a^2}.$$

The fraction thus becomes $\dfrac{1}{1+\dfrac{a-a^2}{1+a^2}}$.

Multiplying both terms by $1+a^2$, the L. C. D., we have

$$\frac{1+a^2}{1+a^2+a-a^2}=\frac{1+a^2}{1+a}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

510. Simplify the following:

1. $\dfrac{\dfrac{3ac^2}{16}}{24}$. Ans. $\dfrac{ac^2}{128}$.

2. $\dfrac{1+\dfrac{a}{c}}{c-\dfrac{a^2}{c}}$. Ans. $\dfrac{1}{c-a}$.

3. $\dfrac{2\frac{7}{8}}{8-2x+\dfrac{x^2}{8}}$. Ans. $\dfrac{23}{(8-x)^2}$.

NOTE.—$2\frac{7}{8}$ means $2+\frac{7}{8}$. Hence for the numerator multiply 2 by the least common denominator 8, and add 7.

4. $\dfrac{1}{x+\dfrac{1}{1+\dfrac{x+1}{3-x}}}$. Ans. $\dfrac{4}{3x+8}$.

5. $\dfrac{\dfrac{a}{b}-\dfrac{b^2}{a^2}}{a^2+ab+b^2}$. Ans. $\dfrac{a-b}{a^2b}$.

INVOLUTION.

511. Involution is the process of raising a quantity to any required power (Art. **362**), by taking it as many times as a factor as there are units in the exponent of the power.

The rules for raising a monomial to any power follow directly from the rules of multiplication. For example, let it be required to raise $3a^2$ to the 4th power. Writing $3a^2$ four times as a factor and performing the multiplication, we have, by Art. **420**,

$$(3a^2)^4 = 3a^2 \times 3a^2 \times 3a^2 \times 3a^2 = 81a^8.$$

Here the power is $81a^8$, and the exponent of the power is 4. It will be observed that the exponent of a in the power, produced by adding together the exponents of a in

the factors, is the product of 4, the exponent of the power, and 2, the exponent of a in $3a^2$, or $4 \times 2 = 8$.

512. Again, since like signs produce plus, it is evident that *any* power of a *positive* quantity will be *positive*, and by multiplying a negative quantity by itself a number of times it will appear that any *odd* power of a *negative* quantity will be *negative*, and any *even* power *positive*. Thus, $(-a)^2 = (-a) \times (-a) = +a^2$; $(-a)^3 = (+a^2)(-a) = -a^3$; $(-a)^4 = (-a^3)(-a) = +a^4$, etc.

513. From the preceding, we have, to raise a monomial to any power:

Rule.—*Raise the numerical coefficient to the required power, and multiply the exponent of each letter by the exponent of the power. If the power is even, make its sign plus; if odd, make its sign the same as that of its root.*

EXAMPLE.—Find the value of $(-4bc^2d^3)^3$.

SOLUTION.—Four raised to the required power equals $4 \times 4 \times 4$, or 64; the exponent of b in the power is $3 \times 1 = 3$; of c, $3 \times 2 = 6$, and of d, $3 \times 3 = 9$. Since the power is *odd*, the sign is the same as that of its root, or minus. Hence, $(-4bc^2d^3)^3 = -64b^3c^6d^9$. Ans.

514. A fraction may be raised to any power by raising both numerator and denominator to the required power.

EXAMPLE.—Find the value of $\left(-\frac{2x^3}{3y^4}\right)^4$.

SOLUTION.— $(2x^3)^4 = 16x^{12}$, for the numerator of the power; $(3y^4)^4 = 81y^{16}$ for the denominator of the power. Since the power is even, its sign will be plus. Hence,

$$\left(-\frac{2x^3}{3y^4}\right)^4 = \frac{16x^{12}}{81y^{16}}. \text{ Ans.}$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

515. Find the values of the following:

1. $(2a^2b^4)^4$. Ans. $16a^8b^{16}$.
2. $(-5ax^3y^2)^4$. Ans. $625a^4x^{12}y^8$.
3. $(-m^3n^4)^7$. Ans. $-m^{21}n^{28}$.
4. $\left(-\frac{a^3b^3}{2}\right)^4$. Ans. $\frac{a^{12}b^{12}}{16}$.
5. $(\frac{8}{5}ax^2)^6$. Ans. $\frac{64}{729}a^6x^{12}$.
6. $\left(\frac{m^4n^5x}{-6c^2d^3}\right)^3$. Ans. $-\frac{m^{12}n^{15}x^3}{216c^6d^9}$.

INVOLUTION OF POLYNOMIALS.

516. Since involution consists of successive multiplications, a polynomial may be raised to any power by multiplying it by itself until it has been taken as many times as a factor as there are units in the exponent of the power.

When finding the square of a binomial, however, the method of Arts. **428** and **429** should be used, for it saves actual multiplication. If a polynomial of more than two terms is to be involved, it may sometimes be divided into two parts, thus forming a binomial which can be squared by this method, as explained in example 11, Art. **434**.

This method may be extended to include any power, by first raising the binomial $a + b$ to that power by multiplication, and then substituting for a and b in the result the two terms of the binomial that it is required to raise to the given power. The student need not use this method, however, for any except the second power.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

517. Find the values of the following:

1. $(2a - x - 4y)^2$. Ans. $4a^2 - 4ax - 16ay + x^2 + 8xy + 16y^2$.
2. $(-3a^2x - 2ax^2 + x^3)^2$. Ans. $9a^4x^2 + 12a^3x^3 - 2a^2x^4 - 4ax^5 + x^6$.
3. $(x^2 - ax + a^2)^3$.
   Ans. $x^6 - 3ax^5 + 6a^2x^4 - 7a^3x^3 + 6a^4x^2 - 3a^5x + a^6$.

EVOLUTION.

518. **Evolution** is the process of extracting any required root of a quantity. It is exactly the reverse of involution. Thus, by involution, $(2a)^4 = 2a \times 2a \times 2a \times 2a = 16a^4$; by evolution, $\sqrt[4]{16a^4} = 2a$.

519. Since every *even power* of both positive and negative quantities is positive (Art. **512**), it follows that the *even roots* of a positive quantity may be either positive or negative. Thus, since both $(+a)^4$ and $(-a)^4 = +a^4$, $\sqrt[4]{+a^4}$ equals either $+a$ or $-a$. When it is desired to

indicate that a quantity is either positive or negative, the double sign $\pm$ is used. Thus, $\pm a$ means that a is to be taken as either $+a$ or $-a$, and is read "plus or minus a."

520. From Art. **512** it follows, also, that there can be no even root of a negative quantity. A *negative even* power is impossible; hence, an *even root* of a *negative* quantity is impossible.

521. Since evolution is the reverse of involution, we have the following for extracting any root of a monomial:

Rule.—*Extract the required root of the numerical coefficient, and divide the exponent of each letter by the index of the root. Make the sign of every even root of a positive quantity* $\pm$, *and the sign of every odd root of any quantity the same as that of the quantity.*

EXAMPLE.—Find the value of $\sqrt[4]{256a^4b^{12}c^8}$.

SOLUTION.—The 4th root of 256 is 4. The exponent of a in the root is $4 \div 4 = 1$; of b, $12 \div 4 = 3$; and of c, $8 \div 4 = 2$. As this is an even root of a positive quantity, the sign should be $\pm$. Hence, $\sqrt[4]{256a^4b^{12}c^8} = \pm 4ab^3c^2$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Find the value of $\sqrt[3]{\dfrac{27m^3x^9}{a^9b^6c^{12}}}$.

SOLUTION.— $\sqrt[3]{27m^3x^9} = 3mx^3$; $\sqrt[3]{a^9b^6c^{12}} = a^3b^2c^4$. The quantity is positive, and, as this is an odd root, its sign must be the same, or positive.

$$\text{Hence, } \sqrt[3]{\frac{27m^3x^9}{a^9b^6c^{12}}} = \frac{3mx^3}{a^3b^2c^4}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

522. Find the values of the following:

1. $\sqrt[3]{-125x^3y^6z^9}$. Ans. $-5xy^2z^3$.
2. $\sqrt[4]{10{,}000a^{16}b^{20}c^8}$. Ans. $\pm 10a^4b^5c^2$.
3. $\sqrt[5]{243m^{15}n^{20}}$. Ans. $3m^3n^4$.
4. $\sqrt{-4a^4b^4}$. Impossible.
5. $\sqrt[3]{\dfrac{-x^5y^{10}z^{15}}{a^{20}b^{15}c^{10}d}}$. Ans. $-\dfrac{xy^2z^3}{a^4b^3c^2d}$.
6. $\sqrt[6]{64\dfrac{a^6d^{12}}{b^6d^6}}$. Ans. $\pm 2\dfrac{ad^2}{bd}$.

SQUARE ROOT OF POLYNOMIALS.

523. In Art. **455**, the method of extracting the square root of a trinomial, which is a perfect square, was explained. The method of extracting the square root of *any* polynomial which is a perfect square, is as follows:

Rule.—*Arrange the terms according to the powers of some letter.*

Write the square root of the first term as the first term of the required root, and subtract its square from the given polynomial.

For a trial divisor, divide the first term of the remainder by twice the part of the root already found; annex the result to the root, and also to the divisor.

Multiply the divisor as it now stands by the term of the root last obtained, and subtract the product from the remainder.

If there is still a remainder, use twice the part of the root already found, for a trial divisor, and continue as directed above.

EXAMPLE.—Find the square root of the expression $1 + 10x^2 + 25x^4 + 16x^6 - 24x^5 - 20x^3 - 4x$.

SOLUTION.—First, arrange the expression according to the decreasing powers of x:

$$
\begin{array}{r|l}
 & \overset{root}{4x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x - 1.} \text{ Ans.} \\
\hline
 & 16x^6 - 24x^5 + 25x^4 - 20x^3 + 10x^2 - 4x + 1 \\
 & 16x^6 \\
\hline
8x^3 - 3x^2 & - 24x^5 + 25x^4 \\
 & - 24x^5 + 9x^4 \\
\hline
8x^3 - 6x^2 + 2x & 16x^4 - 20x^3 + 10x^2 \\
 & 16x^4 - 12x^3 + 4x^2 \\
\hline
8x^3 - 6x^2 + 4x - 1 & - 8x^3 + 6x^2 - 4x + 1 \\
 & - 8x^3 + 6x^2 - 4x + 1 \\
\hline
\end{array}
$$

The square root of the first term, $16x^6$, is $4x^3$, which is the first term of the root. This, squared and subtracted from the given polynomial, leaves a remainder of $-24x^5 + 25x^4$, plus the terms that were not brought down. Doubling $4x^3$, the part of the root already found, gives $8x^3$; $-24x^5$ divided by $8x^3 = -3x^2$, which is the second term of the root.

Annexing this to the $8x^2$, the trial divisor, we have for our complete divisor $8x^2 \times 3x^2$, which, multiplied by $-3x^2$, $= -24x^6 + 9x^4$. Subtracting this, and bringing down the next two terms, we have $16x^4 - 20x^3 + 10x^2$. For a new trial divisor, double the root already found, and obtain $2(4x^2 - 3x^2) = 8x^2 - 6x^2$, which is contained in the above dividend $+2x$ times, the third term of the root. In like manner, the last term is found to be -1. Since this is an even root, it would have the double sign $\pm$. (Art. **519.**) In such examples, however, it is not necessary to consider the minus sign.

EXAMPLE.—What is the square root of $x^6 + 8x^4y^2 - 4x^5y - 4xy^5 + 8x^2y^4 - 10x^3y^3 + y^6$?

SOLUTION.—

$$
\begin{array}{l|l}
 & \underline{x^3 - 2x^2y + 2xy^2 - y^3.} \text{ Ans.} \\
 & x^6 - 4x^5y + 8x^4y^2 - 10x^3y^3 + 8x^2y^4 - 4xy^5 + y^6 \\
 & \underline{x^6} \\
2x^3 - 2x^2y & \underline{- 4x^5y + 8x^4y^2} \\
 & \underline{- 4x^5y + 4x^4y^2} \\
2x^3 - 4x^2y + 2xy^2 & \underline{4x^4y^2 - 10x^3y^3 + 8x^2y^4} \\
 & \underline{4x^4y^2 - 8x^3y^3 + 4x^2y^4} \\
2x^3 - 4x^2y + 4xy^2 - y^3 & \underline{- 2x^3y^3 + 4x^2y^4 - 4xy^5 + y^6} \\
 & \underline{- 2x^3y^3 + 4x^2y^4 - 4xy^5 + y^6}
\end{array}
$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

524. Extract the square root of the following polynomials:

1. $4x^4 + 9 - 30x - 20x^3 + 37x^2$. Ans. $2x^2 - 5x + 3$.
2. $16y^4 + 24y^3 + 89y^2 + 60y + 100$. Ans. $4y^2 + 3y + 10$.
3. $-2x - 12x^5 + 10x^4 + 5x^2 - 10x^3 + 9x^6 + 1$.
   Ans. $3x^3 - 2x^2 + x - 1$.

NOTE.—Arrange according to the decreasing powers of x.

ALGEBRA.

(CONTINUED.)

EXPONENTS.

525. In Art. **361**, an **exponent** was defined as a figure written to the right and above a quantity to show how many times the latter is taken as a factor. This definition is not complete, because it applies only to positive integral exponents. Fractional and negative exponents sometimes occur, and require a more extended definition. The rules for positive integral exponents are used for fractional and negative exponents, however, and will be repeated here:

526. I. In multiplication, exponents of like quantities are added. (Art. **418.**)

II. In division, the exponents of quantities in the divisor are subtracted from the exponents of like quantities in the dividend. (Art. **438.**)

III. When raising a monomial to any power, its exponents are multiplied by the exponent of the power. (Art. **511.**)

IV. When extracting the root of a monomial, its exponents are divided by the index of the root. (Art. **521.**)

527. Since letters may represent numbers, they may be used for exponents, the same as figures. Thus, a^n means that a is to be taken as many times as a factor as there are units in n, or $a \times a \times a$, etc., to n factors. Such exponents are called **literal exponents.** Fractional, negative and literal exponents are all read by using the word exponent. Thus, $a^{\frac{2}{3}}$, a^{-4}, $a^{\frac{n}{m}}$, and a^n, are read, "a, exponent $\frac{2}{3}$," "a, exponent, minus 4," "a, exponent $n \div m$," and "a, exponent n," respectively.

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528. The meaning of **fractional exponents** will be evident from the following illustration: By Art. **526,** IV, the square root of a^6 is a^3, obtained by dividing the exponent 6 of the power, by the index 2 of the root. Since, however, a fraction is an expression of division (Art. **477**), the square root of a^6 might be *indicated* by writing the exponent of a, as $\frac{6}{2}$, thus *indicating* the division of 6 by 2. Thus, $a^{\frac{6}{2}}$, means the square root of a^6. Hence,

The numerator of a fractional exponent denotes a power, and the denominator, a root.

For example, $a^{\frac{1}{2}} = \sqrt{a}$; $c^{\frac{2}{3}} = \sqrt[3]{c^2}$; $x^{\frac{m}{n}} = \sqrt[n]{x^m}$; $2c^{\frac{m}{5}} = 2\sqrt[5]{c^m}$, the exponent $\frac{m}{5}$ applying only to the c.

Since $\frac{6}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \times 6$, $a^{\frac{6}{2}} = a^{\frac{1}{2} \times 6}$; in other words, $a^{\frac{6}{2}}$ may also be read as the sixth power of the square root of a.

529. The meaning of **negative exponents** may be illustrated as follows: Let it be required to divide a^4 by a^2. By Art. **526,** II, we have $\frac{a^4}{a^2} = a^{4-2} = a^2$; also, $a^2 \div a^2 = \frac{a^2}{a^2} = a^{2-2} = a^0$, and $a^0 \div a^2 = \frac{a^0}{a^2} = a^{0-2} = a^{-2}$, etc. From this, it will be seen that $\frac{a^0}{a^2} = a^{-2}$; but, by Art. **439,** $a^0 = 1$, so that 1 may be written for a^0, in this expression, thus: $\frac{a^0}{a^2} = \frac{1}{a^2} = a^{-2}$. Hence,

A quantity affected with a negative exponent denotes the reciprocal of the same quantity affected with an equal positive exponent. (Art. **481.**)

530. Also, since in $\frac{1}{a^2} = a^{-2}$, the a^{-2} changes to a^2 when placed in the denominator, we may state that,

A factor may be changed from the numerator to the denominator, or from the denominator to the numerator, if the sign of its exponent be changed.

For example, $\frac{n^{-2}}{ab} = \frac{1}{abn^2}$; $\frac{n}{ab^{-\frac{1}{2}}} = \frac{nb^{\frac{1}{2}}}{a}$; $\frac{x^{-\frac{2}{3}}}{5y^{-1}} = \frac{y}{5x^{\frac{2}{3}}}$, etc. In the last, the positive exponent 1 of the y is not written.

EXAMPLE.—Express, with positive exponents,

$$a^{-1}b^{-2}c^{3} + a^{-2}b^{-\frac{3}{4}}c^{-\frac{1}{3}} + a^{3}b^{-2}.$$

SOLUTION.—Since these terms may be taken as fractions, with one for the denominators, we have, by transferring the letters with negative exponents to the denominators,

$$a^{-1}b^{-2}c^{3} + a^{-2}b^{-\frac{3}{4}}c^{-\frac{1}{3}} + a^{3}b^{-2} = \frac{c^{3}}{ab^{2}} + \frac{1}{a^{2}b^{\frac{3}{4}}c^{\frac{1}{3}}} + \frac{a^{3}}{b^{2}} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

531. It should be observed that only *factors* of the *whole* denominator or numerator can be changed, and that they must become factors of the *whole* numerator or denominator to which they are transferred. Thus, in $\frac{a}{bc^{-2}+d}$, the c^{-2} cannot be transferred to the numerator, by merely changing the signs of the exponent, because it is not a factor of the *whole* denominator; but the exponent may be made positive in the following manner:

$$\frac{a}{bc^{-2}+d} = \frac{a}{\frac{b}{c^{2}}+d} = \frac{a}{\frac{b+c^{2}d}{c^{2}}} = \frac{ac^{2}}{b+c^{2}d}.$$ In $\frac{ac^{-2}}{b+d}$, the c^{-2}, when transferred, must become a factor of the *whole* denominator, thus, $\frac{a}{c^{2}(b+d)}$.

532. The method of dealing with fractional, negative, and literal exponents will be clearly shown by the examples which follow:

EXAMPLE.—Find the products of the following: a^{3} and a^{-1}; n and $n^{-\frac{1}{4}}$; $c^{\frac{n}{m}}$ and $c^{\frac{2n}{m}}$; x^{-1} and $\sqrt[3]{x^{2}}$; $2c^{-\frac{2}{3}}$ and $\frac{1}{-3\sqrt[3]{c^{2}}}$. Write all the products with positive exponents.

SOLUTION.—Apply Art. **526**, I, in each case. The exponents of the first are 3 and -1; their sum is $3-1=2$. Hence, $a^{3}\times a^{-1}=a^{2}$. Ans.

In like manner, $n\times n^{-\frac{1}{4}}=n^{1-\frac{1}{4}}=n^{\frac{3}{4}}$, Ans., the exponent $\frac{3}{4}$ being the sum of 1 and $-\frac{1}{4}$; $c^{\frac{n}{m}}\times c^{\frac{2n}{m}}=c^{\frac{3n}{m}}$. Ans.

To multiply the next, change $\sqrt[3]{x^{2}}$ to $x^{\frac{2}{3}}$ by Art. **528**. Then $x^{-1}\times x^{\frac{2}{3}}=x^{-\frac{1}{3}}=\frac{1}{x^{\frac{1}{3}}}$. Ans. (Art. **530**.) In the last one $2c^{-\frac{2}{3}}=\frac{2}{c^{\frac{2}{3}}}$ and $\frac{1}{-3\sqrt[3]{c^{2}}}=\frac{1}{-3c^{\frac{2}{3}}}$; whence, $\frac{2}{c^{\frac{2}{3}}}\times\frac{1}{-3c^{\frac{2}{3}}}=\frac{2}{-3c^{\frac{4}{3}}}=-\frac{2}{3c^{\frac{4}{3}}}$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Find the quotients of the following: $a^3 \div a^{-1}$; $n^{-\frac{1}{2}} \div n^{-\frac{3}{2}}$; $c^{\frac{n}{m}} \div c^{\frac{2n}{m}}$; $x^2 \div \sqrt[5]{x^2}$.

SOLUTION.—Apply Art. **526**, II, in each case. The exponents of the first are 3 and -1; subtracting, $3-(-1)=4$. Hence, $a^3 \div a^{-1} = a^4$. Ans.

In like manner, $n^{-\frac{1}{2}} \div n^{-\frac{3}{2}} = n^{-\frac{1}{2}+\frac{3}{2}} = n^{\frac{1}{2}}$. Ans.; $c^{\frac{n}{m}} \div c^{\frac{2n}{m}} = c^{\frac{n}{m}-\frac{2n}{m}} = c^{-\frac{n}{m}}$. Ans.; $x^2 \div \sqrt[5]{x^2} = x^2 \div x^{\frac{2}{5}} = x^{\frac{8}{5}}$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Find the values of the following: $(a^{-1})^{-\frac{1}{2}}$; $(cd^{-2})^{\frac{3}{2}}$; $(x^a)^{-b} \div (x^{-a})^{-b}$; $\sqrt{9m^{-2}x^{\frac{2}{3}}}$.

SOLUTION.—Apply Art. **526**, III. In the first, multiplying the exponents (see Art. **511**), $-1 \times -\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$. Hence, $(a^{-1})^{-\frac{1}{2}} = a^{\frac{1}{2}}$, or $\sqrt{a}$. Ans. In like manner, $(cd^{-2})^{\frac{3}{2}} = c^{\frac{3}{2}}d^{-5}$, Ans., since $1 \times \frac{3}{2} = \frac{3}{2}$, and $-2 \times \frac{5}{2} = -5$.

In the next one, $(x^a)^{-b} = x^{-ab}$ and $(x^{-a})^{-b} = x^{ab}$. Dividing, $x^{-ab} \div x^{ab} = x^{-ab-ab} = x^{-2ab}$. Ans. For the last example, apply Art. **526**, IV. Since this is the square root, divide the exponents by 2, thus: $-2 \div 2 = -1$, and $\frac{2}{3} \div 2 = \frac{1}{3}$. Hence, $\sqrt{9m^{-2}x^{\frac{2}{3}}} = 3m^{-1}x^{\frac{1}{3}}$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

533. Clear the following of negative exponents:

1. $x^2y^{-2}z^{-\frac{1}{3}}$. Ans. $\dfrac{x^2}{y^2z^{\frac{1}{3}}}$.
2. $3a^{-1}b + \dfrac{2a}{b^{-3}c^{-1}} + c^{-1}$. Ans. $\dfrac{3b}{a} + 2ab^3c + \dfrac{1}{c}$.
3. $\dfrac{4a^{-2}(c+d)}{2c+d}$. Ans. $\dfrac{4(c+d)}{a^2(2c+d)}$.

Express the following without radical signs:

4. $\sqrt[3]{b^{-2}}$. Ans. $(b^{-2})^{\frac{1}{3}}$ or $b^{-\frac{2}{3}}$.
5. $4a\sqrt{a^{-1}b^{-3}}$. Ans. $4a^{\frac{1}{2}}a^{-\frac{1}{2}}b^{-\frac{3}{2}} = 4a^{\frac{1}{2}}b^{-\frac{3}{2}}$.

Find the values of the following:

6. $m^{\frac{1}{2}} \times m^{-\frac{1}{2}}$. Ans. $m^{\frac{1}{2}}$.
7. $2ab^{\frac{1}{2}} \times a^{-\frac{1}{2}}b$. Ans. $2a^{\frac{1}{2}}b^{\frac{3}{2}}$.
8. $c^{\frac{n}{2}} \div \sqrt{c^{-n}}$. Ans. c^n.
9. $2x^{-2} \div (x^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$. Ans. $2x^{-1}$.
10. $\left(cd^{-\frac{n}{m}}\right)^{2m} \times \sqrt{d^{4n}}$. Ans. c^{2m}.

RADICALS.

534. A **radical** is a root indicated by a radical sign. (Art. **363.**)

535. An indicated root that can be exactly obtained is called a **rational** quantity; when the root cannot be

exactly obtained, it is called a **surd.** Thus, $\sqrt{9}$ is a rational quantity, and $\sqrt{2}$ is a surd.

536. The **degree** of a radical is denoted by the index of the radical sign; thus, $\sqrt[3]{a+2}$ is of the third degree.

537. By Art. **511,** an expression like $(ab)^{\frac{1}{2}} = a^{\frac{1}{2}}b^{\frac{1}{2}}$, or $a^{\frac{1}{2}} \times b^{\frac{1}{2}}$. Hence, expressing the exponent $\frac{1}{2}$ by the radical sign (Art. **528**), $\sqrt[4]{ab} = \sqrt[4]{a} \times \sqrt[4]{b}$. That is, the product of two radicals of the same degree is equal to a radical of like degree, consisting of the product of the quantities under the radical sign.

538. In like manner, $\sqrt{a^2b} = \sqrt{a^2} \times \sqrt{b} = a\sqrt{b}$. That is, *when the quantity under the radical sign has a factor whose indicated root can be extracted, the quantity may be placed outside the radical sign.*

EXAMPLE.—Simplify the following: $\sqrt{48}$; $\sqrt{27a^5x^7}$; $\sqrt[3]{108}$; $3\sqrt[3]{4a^{13}}$.

SOLUTION.—In each case, resolve the quantity under the radical sign into two factors, one of which is the greatest factor of which the indicated root can be extracted, and apply Art. **538.**

$\sqrt{48} = \sqrt{16 \times 3} = \sqrt{16} \times \sqrt{3} = 4\sqrt{3}$. Ans.

$\sqrt{27a^5x^7} = \sqrt{9a^4x^6 \times 3ax} = \sqrt{9a^4x^6} \times \sqrt{3ax} = 3a^2x^3\sqrt{3ax}$. Ans.

$\sqrt[3]{108} = \sqrt[3]{27 \times 4} = \sqrt[3]{27} \times \sqrt[3]{4} = 3\sqrt[3]{4}$. Ans.

$3\sqrt[3]{4a^{13}} = 3\sqrt[3]{a^{12} \times 4} = 3\sqrt[3]{a^{12}} \times \sqrt[3]{4} = 3a^4\sqrt[3]{4}$. Ans.

539. Until the student becomes accustomed to the handling of radicals, it may, perhaps, be better for him to use the fractional exponent method of expressing them, in preference to the radical sign. Thus, in simplifying $\sqrt{48}$, write it $48^{\frac{1}{2}}$, and solve as follows: $48^{\frac{1}{2}} = (16 \times 3)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 16^{\frac{1}{2}} \times 3^{\frac{1}{2}} = 4 \times 3^{\frac{1}{2}} = 4\sqrt{3}$. In a similar manner, $\sqrt{27a^5x^7} = 27^{\frac{1}{2}} \times a^{\frac{5}{2}} \times x^{\frac{7}{2}} = 9^{\frac{1}{2}} \times 3^{\frac{1}{2}} \times a^{\frac{4}{2}} \times a^{\frac{1}{2}} \times x^{\frac{6}{2}} \times x^{\frac{1}{2}} = 3 \times 3^{\frac{1}{2}} \times a^2 \times a^{\frac{1}{2}} \times x^3 \times x^{\frac{1}{2}} = 3a^2x^3 \times 3^{\frac{1}{2}}a^{\frac{1}{2}}x^{\frac{1}{2}} = 3a^2x^3\sqrt{3ax}$.

540. When the quantity under the radical sign is a fraction, *multiply both terms by such a quantity as will make the denominator a perfect power of the same degree as the radical.*

EXAMPLE.—Reduce $\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}$ and $\sqrt{\frac{9}{8}}$ to their simplest forms.

SOLUTION.— $\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} = \sqrt{\frac{2\times 3}{3\times 3}} = \sqrt{\frac{6}{9}}$. Factoring this expression, as was done in the last example, $\sqrt{\frac{6}{9}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{9}\times 6} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{9}} \times \sqrt{6} = \frac{1}{3}\sqrt{6}$. Ans. (Art. **538.**)

$\sqrt{\frac{9}{8}} = \sqrt{\frac{18}{16}}$. Factoring, this equals $\sqrt{\frac{9}{16}\times 2} = \sqrt{\frac{9}{16}} \times \sqrt{2} = \frac{3}{4}\sqrt{2}$. Ans.

541. EXAMPLE.—Remove from under the radical sign the denominator of $\sqrt[4]{\frac{5a}{2b^3c^2}}$.

SOLUTION.—It is necessary to multiply both terms of the fraction by such a quantity as will make the exponents of the denominator all equal to 4. Hence, the denominator must be $2^4b^4c^4$. Dividing $2^4b^4c^4$ by $2b^3c^2$, the result is $2^3bc^2 = 8bc^2$. Multiplying both numerator and denominator by $8bc^2$, the radical becomes $\sqrt[4]{\frac{40abc^2}{2^4b^4c^4}} = \frac{1}{2bc}\sqrt[4]{40abc^2}$. Ans.

542. It follows, also, from Art. **538,** that a factor outside a radical sign may be placed under it by raising it to a power corresponding to the degree of the radical.

EXAMPLE.—In $3x\sqrt{2x}$, introduce the $3x$, and in $2a^2b\sqrt[3]{3ab}$, the $2a^2b$, under the radical signs.

SOLUTION.—Squaring $3x$, we have $9x^2$. Hence, since this is the reverse of Art. **538.**

$$3x\sqrt{2x} = \sqrt{9x^2} \times \sqrt{2x} = \sqrt{18x^3}. \text{ Ans.}$$

Since $(2a^2b)^3 = 8a^6b^3$, $2a^2b\sqrt[3]{3ab} = \sqrt[3]{8a^6b^3} \times \sqrt[3]{3ab} = \sqrt[3]{24a^7b^4}$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

543. Simplify the following:

1. $\sqrt{50}$. Ans. $5\sqrt{2}$.
2. $3\sqrt[3]{24}$. Ans. $6\sqrt[3]{3}$.
3. $2\sqrt[4]{80}$. Ans. $4\sqrt[4]{5}$.
4. $\sqrt{125a^4d^3}$. Ans. $5a^2d\sqrt{5d}$.
5. $\sqrt{\frac{5}{6}}$. Ans. $\frac{1}{6}\sqrt{30}$.
6. $\sqrt[3]{\frac{5}{9}}$. Ans. $\frac{1}{3}\sqrt[3]{15}$.
7. $\frac{a}{b}\sqrt{\frac{b}{2a^3}}$. Ans. $\frac{1}{2ab}\sqrt{2ab}$.

Introduce the coefficients of the radicals in the following, under the radical sign:

8. $5\sqrt{32}$. Ans. $\sqrt{800}$.

9. $x\sqrt[3]{x^2y^2}$. Ans. $\sqrt[3]{x^5y^2}$.

10. $2x\sqrt[3]{xy}$. Ans. $\sqrt[3]{32x^4y}$.

ADDITION AND SUBTRACTION OF RADICALS.

544. Rule.—*Reduce the radicals to their simplest forms, and proceed as in addition or subtraction, combining like radicals, and indicating the addition or subtraction of unlike terms.*

EXAMPLE.—Find the sum of $\sqrt{18}$, $\sqrt{27}$, and $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$.

SOLUTION.—Simplifying, by Art. **538**,

$$\sqrt{18} = \sqrt{9} \times \sqrt{2} = 3\sqrt{2}.$$
$$\sqrt{27} = \sqrt{9} \times \sqrt{3} = 3\sqrt{3}.$$
$$\sqrt{\tfrac{1}{2}} = \sqrt{\tfrac{2}{4}} = \sqrt{\tfrac{1}{4}} \times \sqrt{2} = \tfrac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}.$$

Sum $= (3 + \frac{1}{2})\sqrt{2} + 3\sqrt{3} = \frac{7}{2}\sqrt{2} + 3\sqrt{3}$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—From $2\sqrt[3]{48}$ take $\sqrt[3]{162}$.

SOLUTION.—Simplifying,

$$2\sqrt[3]{48} = 2\sqrt[3]{8} \times \sqrt[3]{6} = 4\sqrt[3]{6}.$$
$$\sqrt[3]{162} = \sqrt[3]{27} \times \sqrt[3]{6} = 3\sqrt[3]{6}.$$

Difference $= (4 - 3)\sqrt[3]{6} = \sqrt[3]{6}$. Ans.

545. In addition and subtraction of radicals, it is better to use the fractional form of expressing them in all cases, since the liabilities of making mistakes are then greatly reduced. Thus, in finding the sum of $\sqrt{18} + \sqrt{27} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$, $\sqrt{18} = 9^{\frac{1}{2}} \times 2^{\frac{1}{2}} = 3 \times 2^{\frac{1}{2}}$, $\sqrt{27} = 9^{\frac{1}{2}} \times 3^{\frac{1}{2}} = 3 \times 3^{\frac{1}{2}}$ and $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2} = \frac{1}{2} \times 2^{\frac{1}{2}}$. Hence, $3 \times 2^{\frac{1}{2}} + 3 \times 3^{\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{1}{2} \times 2^{\frac{1}{2}} = (3 + \frac{1}{2}) \times 2^{\frac{1}{2}} + 3 \times 3^{\frac{1}{2}} = 3\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2} + 3\sqrt{3}$. Here it is perfectly evident that it would not do to add $3 \times 3^{\frac{1}{2}}$ and $3 \times 2^{\frac{1}{2}}$, and get $6 \times 5^{\frac{1}{2}}$.

EXAMPLE.— $\sqrt{320} - \sqrt{80} = 64^{\frac{1}{2}} \times 5^{\frac{1}{2}} - 16^{\frac{1}{2}} \times 5^{\frac{1}{2}} = 8 \times 5^{\frac{1}{2}} - 4 \times 5^{\frac{1}{2}} = (8 - 4)5^{\frac{1}{2}} = 4\sqrt{5}$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

546. Find the value of the following:

1. $\sqrt{50} + \sqrt{72}$. Ans. $11\sqrt{2}$.

2. $\sqrt{\frac{3}{5}} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{15}} + \sqrt{\frac{15}{64}}$. Ans. $\frac{43}{10}\sqrt{15}$.

3. $4\sqrt[3]{54} + 5\sqrt[3]{128} + \sqrt[3]{81}$. Ans. $32\sqrt[3]{2} + 3\sqrt[3]{3}$.

4. $\sqrt[3]{1029} - \sqrt[3]{192}$. Ans. $3\sqrt[3]{3}$.

5. $b\sqrt[3]{27a^6b} - \sqrt[3]{216a^6b^4}$. Ans. $-3a^2b\sqrt[3]{b}$.

MULTIPLICATION AND DIVISION OF RADICALS.

547. Rule.—*If the radicals are of the same degree, multiply or divide the quantities under the radical signs, and write the results under the common radical sign.*

EXAMPLE.—Find the product of $\sqrt{12}$ and $\sqrt{3}$.

SOLUTION.— $\sqrt{12} \times \sqrt{3} = \sqrt{12 \times 3} = \sqrt{36} = 6$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Divide $\sqrt[3]{9a^4}$ by $\sqrt[3]{3a}$.

SOLUTION.— $\sqrt[3]{9a^4} \div \sqrt[3]{3a} = \sqrt[3]{9a^4 \div 3a} = \sqrt[3]{3a^3} = a\sqrt[3]{3}$. Ans.

548. If the radicals are not of the same degree, they must be reduced to equivalent ones, all of which have the same degree, as follows: *Express the radicals with fractional exponents; reduce these fractions to a common denominator, and express the resulting fractional exponents with radical signs.*

EXAMPLE.—Multiply together $\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt[3]{3}$ and $\sqrt[4]{5}$.

SOLUTION.—By Art. **528**, $\sqrt{2} = 2^{\frac{1}{2}}$; $\sqrt[3]{3} = 3^{\frac{1}{3}}$; $\sqrt[4]{5} = 5^{\frac{1}{4}}$; reducing the exponents to a common denominator, 6,

$$2^{\frac{1}{2}} = 2^{\frac{3}{6}} = \sqrt[6]{2^3} = \sqrt[6]{8}.$$
$$3^{\frac{1}{3}} = 3^{\frac{2}{6}} = \sqrt[6]{3^2} = \sqrt[6]{9}.$$
$$5^{\frac{1}{4}} = \sqrt[6]{5}.$$

Multiplying, $\sqrt[6]{8} \times \sqrt[6]{9} \times \sqrt[6]{5} = \sqrt[6]{360}$. Ans.

549. EXAMPLE.—Multiply $7\sqrt{5}$, $2\sqrt[3]{6}$ and $\sqrt[4]{4}$.

SOLUTION.—Writing these surds with fractional exponents, and multiplying, the result is $(7 \times 5^{\frac{1}{2}}) \times (2 \times 6^{\frac{1}{3}}) \times 4^{\frac{1}{4}} = 14(5^{\frac{1}{2}} \times 6^{\frac{1}{3}} \times 4^{\frac{1}{4}})$. That part of the product included in parenthesis cannot be multiplied together by reason of the difference in the exponents. For example, $2^3 \times 5^2 = 8 \times 25 = 200$; it does not equal 10^5, since this equals 100,000. Hence, in order to multiply the three numbers included in parenthesis, they must all be affected with the same exponent. To effect this, the fractional exponents must first be reduced to a common denominator. The common denominator is 12; $5^{\frac{1}{2}} = 5^{\frac{6}{12}}$, $6^{\frac{1}{3}} = 6^{\frac{4}{12}}$ and $4^{\frac{1}{4}} = 4^{\frac{3}{12}}$. But $5^{\frac{6}{12}} = (5^6)^{\frac{1}{12}} = 15{,}625^{\frac{1}{12}}$, $6^{\frac{4}{12}} = (6^4)^{\frac{1}{12}} = 216^{\frac{1}{12}}$ and $4^{\frac{3}{12}} = (4^3)^{\frac{1}{12}} = 16^{\frac{1}{12}}$. Since

the numbers now have the exponent, they may be multiplied together thus, $15{,}625^{\frac{1}{12}} \times 216^{\frac{1}{12}} \times 16^{\frac{1}{12}} = (15{,}625 \times 216 \times 16)^{\frac{1}{12}} = (54{,}000{,}000)^{\frac{1}{12}}$ Hence, the product of $7\sqrt{5}$, $2\sqrt[3]{6}$ and $\sqrt[3]{4} =$

$$14 \times 54{,}000{,}000^{\frac{1}{12}} = 14\sqrt[12]{54{,}000{,}000}. \text{ Ans.}$$

To prove that the answer is correct, perform the indicated operations in both cases. If the results are the same, the work must be correct. Thus, in the last example, $7\sqrt{5} = 15.65248$; $2\sqrt[4]{6} = 3.13017$ and $\sqrt[3]{4} = 1.25992$. Therefore, $15.65248 \times 3.13017 \times 1.25992 = 61.7297$.

But $14\sqrt[12]{54{,}000{,}000}$ also equals 61.7297, showing that the work was correct.

In all doubtful cases arising from the use of surds and radicals, if the student will use fractional exponents instead of the radical sign, he should experience but little difficulty. In addition and subtraction, the surds (not the coefficients of the surds) must be alike; if they are not alike, the addition or subtraction must be indicated. For example, $3 \times 4^{\frac{1}{2}} + 14 \times 4^{\frac{1}{2}} = 17 \times 4^{\frac{1}{2}}$, for the same reason that $3a + 14a = 17a$, but $3 \times 4^{\frac{1}{2}} + 14 \times 5^{\frac{1}{2}} = 3 \times 4^{\frac{1}{2}} + 14 \times 5^{\frac{1}{2}}$, for the same reason that $3a^2 + 14b^2 = 3a^2 + 14b^2$. In multiplication and division, the surds need not be alike, but the fractional exponents of the surds must be alike, for the reason stated above.

550. If there are factors outside the radical signs, multiply or divide them separately.

EXAMPLE.—Divide $4\sqrt{3}$ by $2\sqrt[3]{3}$.

SOLUTION.— $4\sqrt{3} = 4 \times 3^{\frac{1}{2}} = 4 \times 3^{\frac{3}{6}} = 4\sqrt[6]{27}$.

$2\sqrt[3]{3} = 2 \times 3^{\frac{1}{3}} = 2 \times 3^{\frac{2}{6}} = 2\sqrt[6]{9}$.

$4 \div 2 = 2$ and $27 \div 9 = 3$; hence, $4\sqrt{3} \div 2\sqrt[3]{3} = 4\sqrt[6]{27} \div 2\sqrt[6]{9} = 2\sqrt[6]{3}$.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

551. Multiply the following, reducing the answers to their simplest forms:

1. $5\sqrt{8}$ by $3\sqrt{5}$. Ans. $30\sqrt{10}$.
2. $\sqrt[3]{8}$ by $4\sqrt{48}$. Ans. $32\sqrt{3}$.
3. $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt[3]{4}$ by $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt[3]{12}$. Ans. $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt[3]{6}$.

Divide the following:

4. $3\sqrt{15}$ by $4\sqrt{5}$. Ans. $\frac{3}{4}\sqrt{3}$.

5. $\frac{1}{4}\sqrt{\frac{3}{8}}$ by $\frac{3}{7}\sqrt{\frac{2}{5}}$. Ans. $\frac{7}{12}$.

6. $\sqrt[4]{2}$ by $\sqrt[5]{3}$. Ans. $\sqrt[20]{\frac{16}{243}}$.

INVOLUTION AND EVOLUTION OF RADICALS.

552. A radical may be raised to any power, or any root of a monomial radical may be taken, by writing the radical with fractional exponents and proceeding as in Art. **532.** If there is a factor outside the radical it should be involved separately in involution, and in evolution it should first be introduced under the radical sign.

553. The most important case is that of raising a radical to the power corresponding to the degree of the radical, when the radical sign will disappear; thus, to raise $\sqrt[3]{4a}$ to the third power, $(\sqrt[3]{4a})^3 = [(4a)^{\frac{1}{3}}]^3 = (4a)^{\frac{3}{3}} = 4a^1$, or $4a$. Ans.

EQUATIONS.

554. As defined in Art. **354,** an **equation** is a statement of equality between two expressions, as $x + 6 = 14$.

555. Every equation has two parts, called the **first** and **second members.** The first member is the part on the left of the sign of equality, and the second member the part on the right of that sign. In $x + 6 = 14$, $x + 6$ is the first member, and 14 is the second member.

556. Equations usually consist of **known** and **unknown quantities;** that is, of quantities whose values are given, and of quantities whose values are not given, but are to be found. Thus, in $x + 6 = 14$, 6 and 14 are known quantities, and x is unknown; but since by the statement of the equation, $x + 6$ must equal 14, x must have such a value that when added to 6 the sum will be 14. Hence, the value of x is fixed for this particular case, and in a similar manner the value of a single unknown quantity in any equation is fixed by the relations that it bears to the known quantities, and this value can usually be found.

557. To solve an equation is to find the value of the unknown quantity. This is done by a series of **transformations** by which the first member becomes the unknown quantity, and the second member becomes a known quantity, which is, therefore, the value of the unknown quantity.

TRANSFORMATIONS.

558. In transforming an equation, the equality of its members must be preserved; otherwise, the existing relations between the known and unknown quantities will be destroyed. Transformations are based upon the following principles·

559. In any equation:

I. The same quantity may be added to both members. For example, if 2 be added to both members of $x^2 = 16$, the members of the resulting equation, $x^2 + 2 = 18$, will be equal.

II. The same quantity may be subtracted from both members. Thus, if $x^2 = 16$, then $x^2 - 2 = 14$.

III. Both members may be multiplied or both divided by the same quantity. Thus, if $x^2 = 16$, then $2x^2 = 32$ and $\frac{x^2}{2} = 8$.

IV. Both members may be raised to the same power. Thus, if $x^2 = 16$, then $x^4 = 256$.

V. Like roots of both members may be extracted. Thus, if $x^2 = 16$, then $x = 4$.

A little thought will show that none of these operations will destroy the equality of the members. In the equation $16 = 16$, for example, by I, $16 + 2 = 16 + 2$; by II, $16 - 2 = 16 - 2$; by III, $16 \times 2 = 16 \times 2$, etc. It is to be observed, however, that after any transformation, the *members* do not equal their original values.

560. Transposition.—In transforming an equation, it is frequently necessary to transpose, or change a term from one member to the other. For example, in the equation $3x + 5 = 12$, let it be required to transpose the $+ 5$ to

the second member. This may be done by *subtracting* $+5$ from both members, which, by Art. **559,** II, will not destroy the equality; thus,

$$\begin{array}{rl} & 3x+5=12 \\ \text{Subtracting } +5 \text{ from both members,} & \underline{\quad\;\; 5 \quad 5} \\ & 3x \quad\;\; =12-5=7. \end{array}$$

Again, let it be required to transpose the -5 in $3x-5=12$, to the second member. This may be done by *adding* $+5$ to both members, which, by Art. **559,** I, will not destroy the equality; thus,

$$\begin{array}{rl} & 3x-5=12 \\ \text{Adding } +5 \text{ to both members,} & \underline{\quad\;\; 5 \quad 5} \\ & 3x \quad\;\; =12+5=17. \end{array}$$

Now, what was really accomplished in each case was that 5 was transposed from the first to the second member, *with its sign changed;* and in changing a term from the second to the first member, the same operation would be performed. Hence,

561. *Any term may be transposed from either member of an equation to the other, if its sign be changed.*

562. Cancelation.—*When the same term appears with the same sign in both members of an equation, it may be canceled from both.* For, in the equation $x+a=6+a$, we have, by transposing the a in the first member, to the second member, $x=6+a-a$; whence, the a's cancel, leaving $x=6$. It must be observed that terms will not cancel from both members unless they have the *same* sign. Thus, in $x-a=6+a$, we have, by transposing the $-a$, $x=6+2a$.

563. Changing Signs.—It is sometimes desirable to change the sign of a quantity in an equation from $-$ to $+$ or from $+$ to $-$. To change it, we use the following principle: *the signs of all the terms of both members of an equation may be changed without destroying the equality.* For, in the equation $-x+4=10-a$, both members may be multiplied by -1 (Art. **559,** III), giving $x-4=-10+a$, or $a-10$.

564. Clearing of Fractions.—When an equation contains fractions it must be cleared of them in order to find the value of the unknown quantity.

EXAMPLE.—Clear the equation $x+\frac{x}{2}+\frac{3x}{4}+\frac{2x}{6}=100$ of fractions.

SOLUTION.—The L. C. M. of the denominators 2, 4 and 6 is 12. By Art. **559**, III, both members may be multiplied by the same quantity. Hence, multiplying each term by 12, we have $12x+\frac{12x}{2}+\frac{36x}{4}+\frac{24x}{6}=$ 1,200. Now, reducing each fraction to its simplest form, which will not alter its value (Art. **483**), and so will not destroy the equality of the members, we have $12x+6x+9x+4x=1{,}200$, the denominators to all the fractions having canceled.

565. *Hence, to clear an equation of fractions, multiply each term of the equation by the L. C. M. of the denominators.*

566. Instead of multiplying the numerators by the L. C. M. and then reducing the fractions to their simplest forms, it is easier to divide the L. C. M. by each denominator, and then multiply the corresponding numerators by the quotients, as was done in Art. **490.**

EXAMPLE.—Clear the equation $\frac{2x}{x+2}=\frac{1}{2}-\frac{3x+2}{x^2-4}$ of fractions.

SOLUTION.—The L. C. M. of the denominators is $2(x^2-4)$. Dividing this by $x+2$ and multiplying $2x$ by the quotient, $2(x-2)$, gives $4x(x-2)$, or $4x^2-8x$; dividing $2(x^2-4)$ by 2 and multiplying 1 by the quotient, x^2-4, gives x^2-4; and dividing $2(x^2-4)$ by x^2-4 and multiplying $-(3x+2)$ by the quotient, 2, gives $-6x-4$. Hence, the equation becomes $4x^2-8x=x^2-4-6x-4$, all the denominators having canceled in the process.

567. *Where a fraction is preceded by a minus sign, care must be taken to change the sign of every term of the numerator when clearing of fractions. See Art.* **493.**

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

568. Clear the following equations of fractions:

1. $x+\frac{3x}{4}+\frac{5}{7}=16-\frac{2}{x}$. Ans. $28x^3+21x^2+20x=448x-56$.

2. $\frac{x}{4}-\frac{x-3}{2}=\frac{a}{6}$. Ans. $3x-6x+18=2a$.

3. $\frac{x}{a-b}-x=\frac{a-b}{a+b}-1$.
Ans. $ax+bx-a^2x+b^2x=a^2-2ab+b^2-a^2+b^2$.

4. $\frac{1}{(a-b)}=\frac{x}{a-b}-\frac{a+b}{x}$. Ans. $x=x^2-a^2+b^2$.

SOLUTION OF SIMPLE EQUATIONS.

569. A **simple equation** is one containing only the first power of the unknown quantity, when cleared of radical and aggregation signs and fractions. It is also called an equation of the **first degree.**

570. The unknown quantity in a simple equation containing but one unknown quantity is usually represented by the letter x. Known quantities are represented by figures and by the *first* letters of the alphabet. Equations containing known quantities represented by letters are called **literal equations,** and if any literal equation be solved (Art. **557**), the value of the unknown quantity will usually contain one or more of the first letters of the alphabet.

571. To solve a simple equation:

Rule.—*Clear the equation of fractions, if it has any.*

Transpose the terms containing unknown quantities to the first member, and the known terms to the second member.

Combine the terms containing the unknown quantity into one term and reduce the second member to its simplest form.

Divide both members of the resulting equation by the coefficient of the unknown quantity (Art. ***559,*** *III), and the second member of this last equation will be the value of the unknown quantity.*

This rule does not hold absolutely in all cases, since special methods are often used, of which the student can learn only by practice.

572. To verify the result, substitute the value of the unknown quantity in the original equation, which should then reduce so that both members will be alike. When this occurs the equation is said to be **satisfied.**

573. In the following examples, the value of the unknown quantity x is to be determined. All the transformations used depend upon principles explained in Arts. **558–567.**

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $20 + 5.x - 3.x - 18 = 10$.

SOLUTION.—Transposing 20 and -18 to the second member,

$$5.x - 3.x = 10 - 20 + 18.$$

Combining like terms, $2.x = 8.$

Dividing both members by 2 (Art. **559**, III),

$$x = 4. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

To verify the result, substitute 4 for x in the original equation. (Art. **572.**) Thus,

$$20 + 5 \times 4 - 3 \times 4 - 18 = 10,$$

or $$20 + 20 - 12 - 18 = 10.$$

Combining, $10 = 10$, which proves the result.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $5x - (10 - x) = 5x + 4(x - 1)$.

SOLUTION.—Removing the parentheses,

$$5x - 10 + x = 5x + 4x - 4.$$

Transposing -10 to the second member and $5x + 4x$ to the first member, $5x + x - 5x - 4x = 10 - 4.$

Combining like terms, $-3x = 6.$

Changing signs to make the term containing x positive,

$$3x = -6. \quad \text{(Art. } \mathbf{563.}\text{)}$$

Dividing both members by 3, $x = -2$. Ans.

PROOF: $5 \times -2 - (10 + 2) = 5 \times -2 + 4(-2 - 1),$

or $-10 - 10 - 2 = -10 - 8 - 4.$

Combining, $-22 = -22$, which proves the result.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation

$$16 - x - \{7x - [8x - (9x - \overline{3x - 6x})]\} = 0.$$

SOLUTION.—Removing the aggregation signs (Art. **407**),

$$16 - x - 7x + 8x - 9x + 3x - 6x = 0.$$

Transposing 16 to the second member,

$$-x - 7x + 8x - 9x + 3x - 6x = -16.$$

Combining like terms, $-12x = -16.$

Dividing both members by -12,

$$x = \tfrac{16}{12} = 1\tfrac{1}{3}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation

$$\frac{2x + 2}{2} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{8 - 6x}{5} + \frac{2(6x + 7)}{8}.$$

SOLUTION.—Reducing the first term of the first member and the last term of the second member to a simpler form, the equation becomes

$$x + 1 + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{8 - 6x}{5} + \frac{6x + 7}{4}.$$

Clearing of fractions by multiplying each term of both members by 20, the L. C. M. of the denominators, we have

$$20x + 20 + 5 = 32 - 24x + 30x + 35.$$

Transposing terms,

$$20x + 24x - 30x = 32 + 35 - 20 - 5.$$

Uniting terms, $14x = 42.$

Dividing by 14, $x = 3$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $x + \frac{x+4}{2} - \frac{3x-4}{5} - \frac{x}{8} = 9$.

SOLUTION.—Clearing of fractions by multiplying each term by 40, the L. C. M., and remembering that the sign of the second fraction is minus (Art. **567**), $40x + 20x + 80 - (24x - 32) - 5x = 360$.

Removing parenthesis and transposing terms,

$$40x + 20x - 24x - 5x = 360 - 80 - 32.$$

Uniting terms, $31x = 248.$

Dividing by 31, $x = 8.$ Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $\frac{3}{1-x} - \frac{2}{1+x} + \frac{1}{1-x^2} = 0$.

SOLUTION.—Clearing of fractions by multiplying by $1 - x^2$, the L. C. M.,

$$3(1 + x) - 2(1 - x) + 1 = 0.$$

$$3 + 3x - 2 + 2x + 1 = 0.$$

Uniting terms, $5x = -2.$

$x = -.4.$ Ans.

NOTE.—0 multiplied or divided by any number = 0.

574. If the denominators in a fractional equation are partly monomial and partly polynomial, it will be easier to clear of fractions at first partially, multiplying by the L. C. M. of the *monomial* denominators.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $\frac{8x+5}{14} = \frac{4x+6}{7} - \frac{7x-3}{6x+2}$.

SOLUTION.—Clearing of fractions partially, by multiplying each term by 14, and noticing that 2 may be canceled from the denominator of the second fraction of the second member when multiplying by 14,

$$8x + 5 = 8x + 12 - \frac{49x - 21}{3x + 1}.$$

Transposing and uniting the terms (Art. **562**),

$$\frac{49x - 21}{3x + 1} = 7.$$

Clearing of fractions by multiplying each term by $3x + 1$,

$$49x - 21 = 21x + 7$$

$$28x = 28$$

$x = 1.$ Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $1 + \frac{3}{x-1} = \frac{3 + \frac{4-x}{1-x}}{3}$.

SOLUTION.—Simplifying the second member by multiplying both numerator and denominator of the fraction by $1 - x$ (Art. **509**),

$$1 + \frac{3}{x-1} = \frac{3(1-x) + 4 - x}{3(1-x)}.$$

Changing the signs of the first fraction so as to bring $1 - x$ in the denominator (Art. **482**), and clearing of fractions by multiplying by $3(1 - x)$, $3(1 - x) - 9 = 3(1 - x) + 4 - x$.

Canceling $3(1 - x)$ from both members and transposing,

$$x = 13. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

575. When powers of the unknown quantity higher than the first appear in an equation, they will often cancel, the equation thus reducing to a simple one.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation

$$(x + 3)^2 - 3x(4x + 1) = 5x^2 - (4x - 5)^2.$$

SOLUTION.—Performing the operations indicated,

$$x^2 + 6x + 9 - 12x^2 - 3x = 5x^2 - (16x^2 - 40x + 25).$$

Removing the parentheses and transposing terms,

$$x^2 + 6x - 12x^2 - 3x - 5x^2 + 16x^2 - 40x = -25 - 9.$$

Combining like terms, $-37x = -34$.

Dividing by -37, $x = \frac{34}{37}$. Ans.

576. In **literal equations** (Art. **570**), the terms containing known or unknown quantities cannot always be combined into one. In solving, all terms containing unknown quantities must be brought into the first member without regard to whether they contain known quantities.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the literal equation $2ax - 3b = x + c - 3ax$.

SOLUTION.—Transposing the terms containing the unknown quantities to the first member and the remaining terms to the second member, and combining like terms, $5ax - x = 3b + c$.

Factoring $5ax - x$ with a view to bringing x alone in the first member, $(5a - 1)x = 3b + c$.

The coefficient of x is now $5a - 1$, this being considered as one quantity. (Art. **391.**)

Dividing by $5a - 1$, $x = \frac{3b + c}{5a - 1}$. Ans.

PROOF.—Since the original equation is equivalent to $5ax - x = 3b + c$, it will be sufficient to satisfy this equation. Hence, substituting the value of x,

$$\frac{5a(3b + c)}{5a - 1} - \frac{3b + c}{5a - 1} = 3b + c, \text{ or } \frac{(5a - 1)(3b + c)}{5a - 1} = 3b + c.$$

Canceling the $5a - 1$, $3b + c = 3b + c$.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation

$$(x + a)(x - b) - (x - a)(x + b) = a^2 - b^2.$$

SOLUTION.—Performing the operations indicated,

$$x^2 + ax - bx - ab - (x^2 - ax + bx - ab) = a^2 - b^2.$$

Combining like terms, $2ax - 2bx = a^2 - b^2$;

whence, $2(a - b)x = a^2 - b^2$,

or $$x = \frac{a^2 - b^2}{2(a - b)} = \frac{(a + b)(a - b)}{2(a - b)} = \frac{(a + b)}{2}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $\frac{3x + 1}{x + 1} = \frac{3bx - 2a + c}{b(x + 1) - a}$.

SOLUTION.—Clearing of fractions,

$$(3x + 1)[b(x + 1) - a] = (x + 1)(3bx - 2a + c), \text{ or}$$

$$3bx(x + 1) - 3ax + b(x + 1) - a = 3bx(x + 1) - (2a - c)(x + 1).$$

Canceling $3bx(x + 1)$ from both members,

$$-3ax + bx + b - a = -2ax + cx - 2a + c.$$

Transposing and uniting terms,

$$-ax + bx - cx = -a - b + c.$$

Changing signs and factoring,

$$(a - b + c)x = a + b - c;$$

whence, $$x = \frac{a + b - c}{a - b + c}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

577. Solve the following equations:

1. $16 - 3x = 13 - 6x$. Ans. $x = -1$.
2. $3(4x - 5) + 6 = 1 + 2x$. Ans. $x = 1$.
3. $6(5 - 2x) = 6 - 2(x - 2)$. Ans. $x = 2$.
4. $\frac{2x}{3} - \frac{4x}{3} = 5 - \frac{3x}{4}$. Ans. $x = 60$.
5. $\frac{x + 1}{3} - \frac{x + 4}{5} = 16 - \frac{x + 3}{4}$. Ans. $x = 41$.
6. $\frac{x}{3} - \frac{x^2 - 5x}{3x - 7} = \frac{2}{3}$. Ans. $x = -7$.
7. $\frac{5 - 2x}{x + 1} - \frac{3 - 2x}{x + 4} = 0$. Ans. $x = 4\frac{1}{4}$.
8. $2x - 4a = 3ax + a^2 - a^2x$. Ans. $x = \frac{a^2 + 4a}{a^2 - 3a + 2}$.
9. $\frac{ax + 2x}{5a} - \frac{a^2 + 4a + 4}{4b} = 0$. Ans. $x = \frac{5a^2 + 10a}{4b}$.

SUGGESTION.—Transposing the second term to the second member,

$$\frac{ax + 2x}{5a} = \frac{a^2 + 4a + 4}{4b} = \frac{(a + 2)^2}{4b}.$$

Multiplying both sides by $5a$,

$$ax + 2x = \frac{5a(a + 2)^2}{4b}.$$

Solving for x,

$$x = \frac{5a(a + 2)^2}{(a + 2)4b} = \frac{5a(a + 2)}{4b} = \frac{5a^2 + 10a}{4b}.$$

10. $\frac{a(c^2 + x^2)}{cx} = ab + \frac{ax}{c}$. Ans. $x = \frac{c}{b}$.

SIMPLE EQUATIONS CONTAINING RADICALS.

578. To solve equations containing radicals, the radical signs must first be removed. For example, to solve $\sqrt{x} = 4$, we know from Art. **559,** IV, that both members may be raised to the same power. Hence, squaring both members, $\sqrt{x} \times \sqrt{x} = 4 \times 4$, or $x = 16$, since, by Art. **553,** any radical raised to a power corresponding to its index equals the quantity under the radical sign. Again, in $\sqrt[3]{x} = 4$, cubing both members, $\sqrt[3]{x} \times \sqrt[3]{x} \times \sqrt[3]{x} = 4 \times 4 \times 4$, or $x = 64$.

579. Hence, to solve equations containing a single radical:

Rule.—*Transpose the terms of the given equation so that the radical will stand alone in one member; then raise both members to a power corresponding to the index of the radical.*

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $\sqrt{x^2 - 5} - x = -1$.

SOLUTION.—Transposing $-x$ so that the radical will stand alone,

$$\sqrt{x^2 - 5} = x - 1.$$

Squaring both members, since the index of the radical is 2,

$$x^2 - 5 = x^2 - 2x + 1.$$

Transposing and uniting terms,

$$2x = 6,$$

or $\quad x = 3.$ Ans.

580. Before clearing of the radicals the equation should be simplified as much as possible.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $\frac{4}{3}\sqrt{x - 18} = \frac{8}{3}$.

SOLUTION.—Dividing by $\frac{4}{3}$, $\sqrt{x - 18} = \frac{8}{3} \times \frac{3}{4} = 6$.

Squaring $\quad x - 18 = 36,$

or $\quad x = 54.$ Ans.

581. *If there are two or more radicals in the equation, remove each one separately, beginning with the most complex, as directed above.*

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $\sqrt{4x + 21} = 2\sqrt{x} + 1$.

SOLUTION.—The square of $\sqrt{4x + 21}$ is $4x + 21$, and the square of $2\sqrt{x} + 1$ is $4x + 4\sqrt{x} + 1$; hence, squaring,

$$4x + 21 = 4x + 4\sqrt{x} + 1.$$

Transposing and uniting, $\quad 4\sqrt{x} = 20.$

Dividing by 4, $\quad \sqrt{x} = 5.$

Squaring again, $\quad x = 25.$ Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation

$$\sqrt{4x + \sqrt{16x+2}} = 1 + 2\sqrt{x}.$$

SOLUTION.—Squaring, $4x + \sqrt{16x+2} = 1 + 4\sqrt{x} + 4x.$
Canceling $4x$ and squaring again,

$$16x + 2 = 1 + 8\sqrt{x} + 16x.$$

Canceling $16x$ and transposing,

$$-8\sqrt{x} = -1.$$

Changing signs, $8\sqrt{x} = 1,$

or $\sqrt{x} = \frac{1}{8}.$

Squaring again, $x = \frac{1}{64}.$ Ans.

582. When there are fractions with radicals in the denominators, it is usually better to clear of fractions before squaring.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{x-24} = \dfrac{60}{\sqrt{x-24}}.$

SOLUTION.—The product of $\sqrt{x}$ and $\sqrt{x-24}$ is $\sqrt{x^2-24x}$, and the product of $\sqrt{x-24}$ and $\sqrt{x-24}$ is $x-24$. Hence, clearing of fractions,

$$\sqrt{x^2-24x} + x - 24 = 60.$$

Transposing and uniting,

$$\sqrt{x^2-24x} = 84 - x.$$

Squaring, $x^2 - 24x = 7{,}056 - 168x + x^2,$

or $144x = 7{,}056;$

whence, $x = 49.$ Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $\dfrac{a}{b} = \dfrac{\sqrt{x}+\sqrt{b}}{\sqrt{x}-\sqrt{b}}.$

SOLUTION.—Clearing of fractions by multiplying a by $\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{b}$ and $\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{b}$ by b,

$$a\sqrt{x} - a\sqrt{b} = b\sqrt{x} + b\sqrt{b}.$$

Transposing, $-a\sqrt{b}$ and $b\sqrt{x}$,

$$a\sqrt{x} - b\sqrt{x} = a\sqrt{b} + b\sqrt{b}.$$

Factoring, $(a-b)\sqrt{x} = (a+b)\sqrt{b};$

whence, $\sqrt{x} = \dfrac{(a+b)\sqrt{b}}{a-b}.$

Squaring, $x = \dfrac{(a+b)^2 b}{(a-b)^2} = \left(\dfrac{a+b}{a-b}\right)^2 b.$ Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $ax^{-\frac{1}{2}} + d = c.$

SOLUTION.—Transposing, $ax^{-\frac{1}{2}} = c - d,$

or $\dfrac{a}{x^{\frac{1}{2}}} = c - d.$ (Art. **530.**)

Clearing of fractions, $a = x^{\frac{1}{3}}(c-d)$,

or $x^{\frac{1}{3}}(c-d) = a$.

Dividing by $c-d$, $x^{\frac{1}{3}} = \frac{a}{c-d}$.

Cubing, $x = \left(\frac{a}{c-d}\right)^3$. **Ans.**

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

583. Solve the following equations:

1. $\sqrt{x+1} - 2 = 3$. Ans. $x = 24$.
2. $\sqrt{x-32} = 16 - \sqrt{x}$. Ans. $x = 81$.
3. $x^{-\frac{1}{2}} + 2x^{-\frac{1}{3}} + 3x^{-\frac{1}{4}} = 2$. Ans. $x = 9$.
4. $\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{a+x} = \frac{2a}{\sqrt{a+x}}$. Ans. $x = \frac{1}{3}a$.
5. $2(\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{x-3}) = \frac{4}{\sqrt{x}}$. Ans. $x = 4$.
6. $\frac{1}{(10x+35)^{-\frac{1}{2}}} - 3 = 2$. Ans. $x = 9$.

PROBLEMS LEADING TO SIMPLE EQUATIONS WITH ONE UNKNOWN QUANTITY.

584. There are two steps in the solution of problems by Algebra:

First.—The relations which exist between the known and the unknown quantities—that is, between those whose values are given in the problem and those whose values are required—must be stated by one or more equations. This is called the **statement** of the problem.

Second.—The resulting equation or equations must be solved, giving the values of the required quantities.

585. It will thus be seen that by the algebraic method, the answer to a problem is used in the solution and operated upon as though it were a known quantity, which is one great advantage over the arithmetical method.

The ability to state a problem by means of an equation depends upon the ingenuity of the operator and his ability to reason, rather than upon his knowledge of Algebra. No definite rule can be given for making the statement, but in general, where there is only one unknown quantity in a problem:

586. *Decide what quantity it is whose value is to be found. This will be the unknown quantity, or the answer. Then represent the unknown quantity by x and form an equation that will indicate the relations between the knewn and the unknown quantities as stated in the problem.*

NOTE.—The equation will also indicate the operations that would be performed in proving the statement made in the problem, were the answer known. Hence, the equation may often be formed by noticing what operations would be performed upon the answer in proving.

EXAMPLE.—Find such a number that, when 14 is added to its double, the sum shall be 30.

SOLUTION.—The quantity whose value is required is the number itself. As this is the unknown quantity, let $x =$ the number, whence $2x$ must be double the number. Now the problem states that when 14 is added to double the number the sum will be 30. In other words, when 14 is added to $2x$ the sum will be 30. Hence, the statement of the problem in the form of an equation is,

$$2x + 14 = 30; \text{ whence, solving,}$$
$$x = 8. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—Find a number which, when multiplied by 4, will exceed 40 by as much as it is now below 40.

SOLUTION.—Let $x =$ the required number, which, when multiplied by 4, becomes $4x$. According to the conditions of the problem, the amount by which 4 times the required number, or $4x$, exceeds 40 is equal to the amount that the number itself, or x, is below 40.

But $4x - 40$ is the amount by which $4x$ exceeds 40, and $40 - x$ is the amount by which x is below 40.

Hence, by the conditions, we have the statement

$$4x - 40 = 40 - x.$$

Transposing and uniting, $\quad 5x = 80,$

or $\quad x = 16. \quad$ Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Two loads of brick together weigh 4,000 lb.; but if 500 lb. be transferred from the smaller to the larger load, the latter will weigh 7 times as much as the former. How much does each load weigh?

SOLUTION.—If the weights of the two loads were known and it was desired to prove the correctness of the example, we should add 500 lb. to the weight of the larger load and subtract 500 lb. from the weight of the smaller load, as stated in the example. The larger load should then weigh 7 times as much as the smaller. To obtain the equation the same thing is done by letting $x =$ the weight of one load, whence $4{,}000 - x$ equals the weight of the other load.

Let $x =$ the weight of the smaller load.

Then $4{,}000 - x =$ the weight of the larger load.

Also, $x - 500 =$ the weight of the smaller load after transferring 500 lb.

And $4,000 - x + 500 =$ the weight of the larger load after transferring 500 lb.

By the conditions, the larger load now weighs 7 times as much as the smaller.

Hence, $7(x - 500) = 4,000 - x + 500.$

Solving, $7x - 3,500 = 4,500 - x,$

or $8x = 8,000;$

whence, $x = 1,000$ lb. = weight of smaller load,
and $4,000 - x = 3,000$ lb. = weight of larger load. } Ans.

PROOF.—$1,000 - 500 = 500 =$ weight of the smaller load, and $3,000 + 500 = 3,500 =$ weight of the larger load after the 500 pounds have been transferred; $3,500 \div 500 = 7$.

Until the student has attained considerable proficiency in solving problems of this kind, it is a good plan to prove all problems.

EXAMPLE.—The circumference of the fore wheel of a carriage is 10 feet, and of the hind wheel 12 feet. What distance has the carriage traveled, when the fore wheel has made 8 more turns than the hind wheel?

SOLUTION.—In this example the distance traveled is not known, but is required to be found. Suppose that the distance is known, and that it equals x feet, and that we wish to see whether the statement is true that the fore wheel makes 8 more revolutions than the hind wheel in passing over x feet. The number of revolutions of the fore wheel is evidently $\frac{x}{10}$, and of the hind wheel, $\frac{x}{12}$. The example states that the difference between them equals 8.

Hence, $\frac{x}{10} - \frac{x}{12} = 8.$ (1)

Solving for x, $12x - 10x = 960,$

or $2x = 960,$ and

$x = 480$ ft. Ans.

PROOF.— $\frac{480}{10} = 48 =$ revolutions of fore wheel.

$\frac{480}{12} = 40 =$ revolutions of hind wheel.

$48 - 40 = 8.$ Compare this proof with (1).

EXAMPLE.—A water cistern connected with three pipes can be filled by one of them in 80 minutes, by another in 200 minutes, and by the third in 300 minutes. In what time will the cistern be filled when all three pipes are open at once?

SOLUTION.—Here the unknown quantity is the number of minutes required to fill the cistern by all three pipes together. Supposing this to be x minutes, the example may be proved by noticing that the sum

of the quantities of water flowing through each pipe separately in a given length of time, as 1 minute, must be equal to the quantity flowing through all three together in the same length of time. According to the problem, the quantity discharged by the first pipe in one minute would be $\frac{1}{80}$, by the second $\frac{1}{200}$, and by the third $\frac{1}{300}$ of the contents of the cistern. In like manner the quantity discharged by all three at once in one minute would be $\frac{1}{x}$. Then, if the example is stated correctly, we must have $\frac{1}{80}+\frac{1}{200}+\frac{1}{300}=\frac{1}{x}$.

Clearing of fractions,

$$x(30+12+8)=2{,}400,$$

$$\text{or} \quad 50x=2{,}400;$$

$$\text{whence,} \quad x=48 \text{ minutes. Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—A man rows a boat a certain distance *with* the tide, at the rate of $6\frac{2}{3}$ miles an hour, and returns at the rate of $3\frac{1}{3}$ miles an hour, *against* a tide half as strong. If the man is pulling at a uniform rate, what is the velocity of the stronger tide?

SOLUTION.—If the following statement is not clear, the student should reason it out for himself in a manner similar to that used in the last three examples.

Let x = number of miles per hour that the stronger tide is running; then, $\frac{x}{2}$ = number of miles per hour that the weaker tide is running.

Hence, $6\frac{2}{3}-x$ and $3\frac{1}{3}+\frac{x}{2}$ are expressions for the rate at which the man is pulling. But, as he is pulling at a constant rate all of the time, these expressions must be equal. Hence,

$$6\tfrac{2}{3}-x=3\tfrac{1}{3}+\frac{x}{2},$$

$$\text{or} \quad \frac{20}{3}-x=\frac{10}{3}+\frac{x}{2}.$$

Clearing of fractions, $40-6x=20+3x,$

$$\text{or} \quad -9x=-20;$$

$$\text{whence,} \quad x=2\tfrac{2}{9} \text{ miles per hour. Ans.}$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

587. Solve the following examples:

1. The greater of two numbers is four times the lesser number, and their sum is 400; what are the numbers? Ans. 80 and 320.

2. A farmer has 108 animals, consisting of horses, sheep and cows. He has four times as many cows as horses, lacking 8, and five times as many sheep as horses, lacking 4; how many has he of each kind?

Ans. $\begin{cases} \text{12 horses.} \\ \text{40 cows.} \\ \text{56 sheep.} \end{cases}$

3. A can do a piece of work in 8 days, and B can do it in 10 days; in what time can they do it working together? Ans. $4\frac{4}{9}$ days.

4. Find five consecutive numbers whose sum is 150.

Ans. $28 + 29 + 30 + 31 + 32$.

5. A boat whose rate of sailing is 6 miles per hour in still water, moves down a stream which flows at the rate of 3 miles per hour, and returns, making the round trip in 8 hours; how far did it go down the stream? Ans. 18 mi.

QUADRATIC EQUATIONS.

588. A **quadratic equation** is one in which the *square* is the highest power of the unknown quantity, when simplified as stated in Art. **569.** It is also called an equation of the **second degree.**

589. A **pure quadratic equation** is one which contains the square only of the unknown quantity, as $x^2 + 2ab = 10$.

590. An **affected quadratic equation** is one containing both the square and the first power of the unknown quantity, as $x^2 + 2x = 6$.

591. By the processes used to reduce simple equations, any pure quadratic equation may be reduced to an equation having the square of the unknown quantity alone in the first member, and some known quantity in the second member, as in $x^2 = a$, where x^2 is the square of the unknown quantity and a is a known quantity. The value of the unknown quantity may then be found by extracting the square root of both members, which, by Art. **559,** V, will not destroy the equality of the equation. By referring to Art. **519,** it will be seen that after extracting the square root, each member should be written with the $\pm$ sign. Thus, extracting the square root of both members of $x^2 = a$, we have $\pm x = \pm \sqrt{a}$. This may be taken in four **ways**, namely, that

$$+x = +\sqrt{a}.$$
$$+x = -\sqrt{a}.$$
$$-x = -\sqrt{a}.$$
$$-x = +\sqrt{a}.$$

But by Art. **563,** the signs of both members of the last two equations may be changed, making $+x = +\sqrt{a}$ and

$+x = -\sqrt{a}$, the same as in the first two equations. Hence, the equation $x^2 = a$ has the two values,

$$x = +\sqrt{a} \text{ and}$$
$$x = -\sqrt{a},$$

and these may be expressed by writing x in the first member without any sign (plus, understood), and writing the square root of a in the second member with the $\pm$ sign, thus, $x = \pm\sqrt{a}$.

592. From the foregoing, we have the following rule for solving a pure quadratic equation:

Rule.—*Reduce the given equation to the form of* $x^2 = a$ (*Art.* **591**), *and extract the square root of both members, writing the* $\pm$ *sign before the square root of the second member.*

NOTE.—The **root** of an equation is the value of the unknown quantity. From this it will be seen that a simple equation has one root, and a quadratic equation has two roots. In general, any equation has as many roots as there are units in the exponent of the unknown quantity.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $\frac{x^2}{16} - \frac{x^2-3}{5} = \frac{1}{20}$.

SOLUTION.—Clearing of fractions by multiplying each term by 80,

$$5x^2 - 16(x^2 - 3) = 4.$$

Transposing and uniting, $-11x^2 = -44$,

or $x^2 = 4$.

Extracting the square root of both members,

$$x = \pm 2. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation

$$\frac{\sqrt{x-2}}{\sqrt{x+2}} + \frac{\sqrt{x+2}}{\sqrt{x-2}} = 4.$$

SOLUTION.—Clearing of fractions by multiplying each term by $\sqrt{x+2} \times \sqrt{x-2}$,

$$x - 2 + x + 2 = 4\sqrt{x+2} \times \sqrt{x-2};$$

or, $2x = 4\sqrt{x^2-4}$. (Art. **547.**)

Dividing by 2, $x = 2\sqrt{x^2-4}$.

Squaring, $x^2 = 4(x^2-4)$,

or $x^2 = 4x^2 - 16$;

whence, $-3x^2 = -16$,

and $x^2 = \frac{16}{3}$.

Extracting the square root of both members,

$$x = \pm 4\sqrt{\tfrac{1}{3}}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

By Art. **540**, the answer may also be written $\pm \frac{4}{3}\sqrt{3}$, a better form

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

593. Solve the following equations:

1. $3x^2 - 57 - 4x^2 = -8x^2 + 6.$ Ans. $x = \pm 8.$
2. $\frac{1}{2x^2} + 7 = \frac{9}{4x^2}.$ Ans. $x = \pm \frac{1}{2}.$
3. $35 - \frac{x^2 + 50}{5} = x^2 - \frac{x^2 - 10}{3}.$ Ans. $x = \pm 5.$
4. $x\sqrt{6 + x^2} = 1 + x^2.$ Ans. $x = \pm \frac{1}{2}.$
5. $\frac{\sqrt{x+1}}{\sqrt{x-1}} + \frac{\sqrt{x-1}}{\sqrt{x+1}} = 3.$ Ans. $x = \pm 3\sqrt{\frac{1}{5}} = \pm \frac{3}{5}\sqrt{5}.$
6. $x\sqrt{a + x^2} = b + x^2.$

NOTE.—After squaring, transpose all terms containing x^2 into the first member and factor.

Ans. $x = \pm b\sqrt{\frac{1}{a - 2b}} = \pm \frac{b}{a - 2b}\sqrt{a - 2b}.$

AFFECTED QUADRATIC EQUATIONS.

594. The solution of affected quadratic equations depends upon the form of the trinomial obtained by squaring a binomial, as $x + a$ or $x - a$, where a and x represent known and unknown quantities, respectively. By Arts. **428** and **429**, $(x \pm a)^2 = x^2 \pm 2ax + a^2$. It is to be observed that the first term of this trinomial is the *square* of the *unknown quantity*, and that it is *positive*; the second term contains the *first power* of the *unknown quantity*, and the third term is a *known quantity*, which is a perfect square and positive.

595. Every affected quadratic equation can be reduced so that the *second member* will become a *known quantity*, and the *first member will consist of only two terms, corresponding to* x^2 *and* $\pm 2ax$, *as above.* When reduced to this form, it may be solved by adding a known quantity to both members, corresponding to the a^2 above, which will make a perfect square of the first member. Then, by extracting the square root of both members of the equation, the first member will be in the form of $x \pm a$, containing only the first power of the unknown quantity.

596. Inspection of the trinomial $x^2 \pm 2ax + a^2$ shows that the third term, or the quantity to be added to both

members, is equal to the square of half the coefficient of x. Adding this quantity to both members is called **completing the square,** meaning that it makes a perfect square of the first member.

597. Hence, to solve an affected quadratic equation:

Rule.—*Reduce the equation to the form of $x^2 \pm ax = b$; that is, so that the second member consists of a known quantity, while the first member has but two terms, the first being the square of the unknown quantity and positive, its coefficient being 1, and the second containing the first power of the unknown quantity with any coefficient.*

Complete the square by adding the square of half the coefficient of x to both members.

Extract the square root of both members and solve for x.

EXAMPLE 1.—Solve the equation, $4x^2 - 16x - 128 = 0$.

SOLUTION.—Transposing the -128,

$$4x^2 - 16x = 128. \quad (1)$$

Dividing by 4, $\quad x^2 - 4x = 32.$

The equation now fulfils the conditions of the rule; namely, the second member is a known quantity, 32, while the first member has but two terms, the first being x^2 alone, and positive, and the second containing the first power of x.

The coefficient of x divided by 2 is -2; the square of this is 4, the quantity to be added to both members. Hence, completing the square,

$$x^2 - 4x + 4 = 32 + 4 = 36.$$

Extracting the square root of both members,

$$x - 2 = \pm 6.$$

Transposing -2, $\quad x = 2 + 6$, or $2 - 6$;

whence, $\quad x = 8$, or -4. Ans.

PROOF.—Substituting 8 for x in equation (1),

$$4(8)^2 - 16 \times 8 = 4 \times 64 - 128 = 128.$$

Substituting -4 for x, $4(-4)^2 - 16(-4) = 64 + 64 = 128.$

EXAMPLE 2.—Solve the equation $-x^2 + 13x = -14$.

SOLUTION.—Changing all the signs to make the first term positive

$$x^2 - 13x = 14. \quad (1)$$

To complete the square, $(-\frac{13}{2})^2$ or $\frac{169}{4}$ must be added to both members. To do this, change 14 into fourths, giving $\frac{56}{4}$.

Completing the square,

$$x^2 - 13x + \frac{169}{4} = 14 + \frac{169}{4} = \frac{56}{4} + \frac{169}{4} = \frac{225}{4}.$$

Extracting the square root, $x - \frac{13}{2} = \pm \frac{15}{2}$;

whence, $x = \frac{28}{2}$ or $-\frac{2}{2} = 14$ or -1. Ans.

NOTE.—It is better, as a rule, to use common fractions than to use decimals, when solving affected quadratic equations. Until the student has attained considerable proficiency in solving these equations, he should prove the correctness of his result, as was done in example 1.

EXAMPLE 3.—Solve the equation, $-3x^2 - 7x = \frac{10}{3}$.

SOLUTION.—Dividing both members by -3 to make x^2 stand alone, and positive, $x^2 + \frac{7}{3}x = -\frac{10}{9}$.

Completing the square by adding $(\frac{7}{6})^2 = \frac{49}{36}$,

$$x^2 + \frac{7}{3}x + \frac{49}{36} = -\frac{10}{9} + \frac{49}{36} = \frac{9}{36}.$$

Extracting the square root, $x + \frac{7}{6} = \pm \frac{3}{6}$;

whence, $x = -\frac{2}{3}$ or $-\frac{5}{3}$. Ans.

EXAMPLE 4.—Solve the equation $x - \dfrac{x^3 - 8}{x^2 + 5} = 2$.

SOLUTION.—Clearing of fractions,

$$x^3 + 5x - x^3 + 8 = 2x^2 + 10.$$

Transposing and uniting terms,

$$-2x^2 + 5x = 2.$$

Dividing by -2, $\quad x^2 - \frac{5}{2}x = -1.$

Completing the square, $x^2 - \frac{5}{2}x + \frac{25}{16} = \frac{9}{16}$.

Extracting the square root,

$$x - \frac{5}{4} = \pm \frac{3}{4};$$

whence, $x = 2$ or $\frac{1}{2}$. Ans.

EXAMPLE 5.—Solve the literal equation, $acx^2 - bcx + adx = bd$.

SOLUTION.—Reducing the equation so that the first member will contain two terms, one with x^2 and one with x,

$$acx^2 - (bc - ad)x = bd.$$

Here, $bc - ad$ is the coefficient of x. Dividing by ac to make the first term a perfect square,

$$x^2 - \frac{bc - ad}{ac}x = \frac{bd}{ac}.$$

Completing the square,

$$x^2 - \frac{bc - ad}{ac}x + \frac{(bc - ad)^2}{4a^2c^2} = \frac{bd}{ac} + \frac{b^2c^2 - 2abcd + a^2d^2}{4a^2c^2} =$$

$$\frac{b^2c^2 + 2abcd + a^2d^2}{4a^2c^2}.$$

Extracting the square root,

$$x - \frac{bc - ad}{2ac} = \pm \frac{bc + ad}{2ac}.$$

Transposing and uniting,

$$x = \frac{bc - ad}{2ac} \pm \frac{bc + ad}{2ac};$$

whence, $x = \dfrac{b}{a}$ or $-\dfrac{d}{c}$. Ans.

598. An affected quadratic equation always contains three terms: the first, containing the square of the unknown quantity; the second, the first power of the unknown quantity, and the third, containing no power of the unknown quantity. Every such equation may be solved by means of the rule given in Art. **597.**

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $(2m + n)x^2 - mx = 4m^2n^2$.

SOLUTION.—According to the rule, the coefficient of x^2 must be 1; hence, dividing both sides of the equation by the coefficient of x^2 (which will not alter the equality), the equation becomes $x^2 - \frac{m}{2m+n}x = \frac{4m^2n^2}{2m+n}$. According to the rule, the square of one-half of the coefficient of x (the first power of the unknown quantity) must be added to both members of the equation. In this example, the coefficient of x is $\frac{m}{2m+n}$, and the square of one-half of it is $\left[\frac{m}{2(2m+n)}\right]^2$. Adding this to both members, the equation becomes

$$x^2 - \frac{m}{2m+n}x + \left[\frac{m}{2(2m+n)}\right]^2 = \frac{4m^2n^2}{2m+n} + \left[\frac{m}{2(2m+n)}\right]^2.$$

Simplify the right-hand member, thus:

$$\left[\frac{m}{2(2m+n)}\right]^2 = \frac{m^2}{4(4m^2+4mn+n^2)} = \frac{m^2}{16m^2+16mn+4n^2}.$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{4m^2n^2}{2m+n} + \frac{m^2}{16m^2+16mn+4n^2} = \frac{4m^2n^2(8m+4n)+m^2}{16m^2+16mn+4n^2} =$$

$$\frac{32m^3n^2+16m^2n^3+m^2}{16m^2+16mn+4n^2} = \frac{m^2(32mn^2+16n^3+1)}{4(2m+n)^2}.$$

Extracting the square root of both sides of the completed square, which is now

$$x^2 - \frac{m}{2m+n}x + \left[\frac{m}{2(2m+n)}\right]^2 = \frac{m^2(32mn^2+16n^3+1)}{4(2m+n)^2},$$

we have $x - \frac{m}{2(2m+n)} = \pm\frac{m}{2(2m+n)}\sqrt{32mn^2+16n^3+1}$,

or $$x = \frac{m}{2(2m+n)} \pm \frac{m}{2(2m+n)}\sqrt{32mn^2+16n^3+1} =$$

$$\frac{m}{2(2m+n)}(1 \pm \sqrt{32mn^2+16n^3+1}). \quad \text{Ans.}$$

This example is quite as complicated as any the student will probably ever be called upon to solve. It is by no means difficult, if each step is followed by reference to the rule. It should be noted that in all cases the coefficient of

the first power of the unknown quantity (i. e., the quantity whose value it is desired to find) consists of all the numbers and letters which are multiplied into the quantity. Thus, in $3a^2bc^3x$ the coefficient of x is $3a^2bc^3$, and one-half of it is $\frac{3a^2bc^3}{2} = \frac{3}{2}a^2bc^3$.

EXAMPLE.—Solve for x in the equation $80 - 3x^2 - 2x = -5$.

SOLUTION.—Transposing the known term in the left-hand member, $-3x^2 - 2x = -85$. Dividing by the coefficient of x (which is -3 in this case), the equation becomes $x^2 + \frac{2}{3}x = \frac{85}{3}$. One-half of the coefficient of x is $\frac{2}{3} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{3}$, and the square of it is $(\frac{1}{3})^2 = \frac{1}{9}$. Adding $\frac{1}{9}$ to both members, $x^2 + \frac{2}{3}x + \frac{1}{9} = \frac{85}{3} + \frac{1}{9}$. But, $\frac{85}{3} + \frac{1}{9} =$ (reducing to a common denominator) $\frac{255 + 1}{9} = \frac{256}{9}$.

Hence, $x^2 + \frac{2}{3}x + \frac{1}{9} = \frac{256}{9}$. Extracting the square root of both members $\sqrt{x^2 + \frac{2}{3}x + \frac{1}{9}} = \sqrt{\frac{256}{9}}$, or $x + \frac{1}{3} = \pm \frac{16}{3}$; whence, $x = -\frac{1}{3} \pm \frac{16}{3} = 5$, or $-\frac{17}{3}$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Find the value of x in the equation $\frac{x}{x+a} = \frac{b}{x-b}$.

SOLUTION.—Clearing of fractions, $x(x - b) = b(x + a)$ or $x^2 - bx = bx + ab$. The term bx in the right-hand member must be transposed to the other side, so that only the known term shall be on the right. The equation then becomes $x^2 - bx - bx = ab$, or $x^2 - 2bx = ab$. Here the coefficient of x is $2b$ and the square of one-half of it is $\left(\frac{2b}{2}\right)^2 = b^2$. Adding b^2 to both sides, $x^2 - 2bx + b^2 = ab + b^2 = (a + b)b$. Extracting the square root of both members, $x - b = \pm \sqrt{(a + b)b}$, or $x = b \pm \sqrt{(a + b)b}$. Ans.

When extracting the square root of the left-hand member, after the square has been completed, it is easier and quicker to apply the rule given in Art. **457**, than the rule for square root given in Art. **523**.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

599. Solve the following equations:

1. $x^2 + 2x = 35$. Ans. $x = 5$ or -7.
2. $9x^2 + 6x = 15$. Ans. $x = 1$ or $-1\frac{2}{3}$.
3. $5x^2 - 24x = 5$. Ans. $x = 5$ or $-\frac{1}{5}$.
4. $x + \frac{24}{x-1} = 3x - 4$. Ans. $x = 5$ or -2.
5. $-5x^2 + 9x = 2\frac{1}{4}$. Ans. $x = \frac{3}{10}$ or $\frac{3}{2}$.
6. $\frac{x}{x+1} + \frac{x+1}{x} = \frac{13}{6}$. Ans. $x = 2$ or -3.

7. $\frac{9x}{12x+6b}=\frac{3b}{4x-2b}$. **Ans.** $x=\frac{b}{4}(3\pm\sqrt{17})$.

8. $\frac{2x(a-x)}{3a-2x}=\frac{a}{4}$. Ans. $x=\frac{3a}{4}$ or $\frac{a}{2}$.

EQUATIONS IN THE QUADRATIC FORM.

600. An equation is in the *quadratic form* when it contains only two powers of the unknown quantity, *and the exponent of one power is twice as great as the exponent of the other.* Such equations are solved by the rules for quadratics.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $x^4+4x^2=12$.

SOLUTION.—Completing the square,

$$x^4+4x^2+4=16.$$

Extracting the square root, $x^2+2=\pm 4$,

or $x^2=2$ or -6.

Extracting the square root again,

$$x=\pm\sqrt{2} \text{ or } \pm\sqrt{-6}. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $x^6+20x^3-10=59$.

SOLUTION.—Transposing the -10,

$$x^6+20x^3=69.$$

Completing the square, $x^6+20x^3+100=169$.

Extracting the square root, $x^3+10=\pm 13$,

or $x^3=3$ or -23.

Extracting the cube root, $x=\sqrt[3]{3}$ or $-\sqrt[3]{23}$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $x^{\frac{2}{3}}+x^{\frac{1}{3}}=756$.

SOLUTION.—Completing the square,

$$x^{\frac{2}{3}}+x^{\frac{1}{3}}+\tfrac{1}{4}=\frac{3,025}{4}.$$

$$x^{\frac{1}{3}}+\tfrac{1}{2}=\pm\frac{55}{2}.$$

$$x^{\frac{1}{3}}=27 \text{ or } -28.$$

Now, to obtain a value for x, we must extract the cube root of both members, and then raise both members to the 5th power. This will clear x of its fractional exponent.

Extracting the cube root, $x^{\frac{1}{9}}=3$ or $-\sqrt[3]{28}$.

Raising to the 5th power, $x=243$ or $-\sqrt[3]{28^5}$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

601. Solve the following equations:

1. $x^4+4x^2=117$. Ans. $x=\pm 3$ or $\pm\sqrt{-13}$.
2. $x^6-2x^3=48$. Ans. $x=2$ or $-\sqrt[3]{6}$.

3. $x^6 - 8x^3 = 513.$ Ans. $x = 3$ or $-\sqrt[3]{19}.$

4. $x^3 - x^{\frac{3}{2}} = 56.$ Ans. $x = 4$ or $(-7)^{\frac{2}{3}}.$

PROBLEMS LEADING TO QUADRATIC EQUATIONS.

602. In quadratics, where two answers are obtained by solving equations, it is usually the case that only one answer, the positive value, is required. In some instances, however, the negative value is the one sought. In works treating on higher mathematics, the negative value is used as frequently as the positive value.

EXAMPLE.—There are two numbers whose sum is 40, and the sum of their squares is 818. What are the numbers?

SOLUTION.—Let $x =$ one number, and $40 - x =$ the other number.

Then, by the conditions, $x^2 + (40 - x)^2 = 818;$

whence, $x^2 + 1{,}600 - 80x + x^2 = 818.$

Combining, $2x^2 - 80x = -782,$

or $x^2 - 40x = -391.$

Completing the square, $x^2 - 40x + 400 = 9.$

Extracting the square root, $x - 20 = \pm 3;$

$$\left.\begin{array}{r}\text{whence,}\quad x = 23 \text{ or } 17,\\ \text{and}\quad 40 - x = 17 \text{ or } 23.\end{array}\right\}\ \textbf{Ans.}$$

Both answers fulfil the conditions.

EXAMPLE.—An iron bar weighs 36 pounds. If it had been 1 foot longer, each foot would have weighed $\frac{1}{2}$ a pound less. Find the length of the bar.

SOLUTION.—Let $x =$ the length of the bar in feet.

Then, $\dfrac{36}{x} =$ the weight per foot, and

$\dfrac{36}{x+1} =$ the weight per foot if the bar were 1 foot longer.

By the conditions, $\dfrac{36}{x} - \dfrac{36}{x+1} = \frac{1}{2}.$

Clearing of fractions, $72x + 72 - 72x = x^2 + x,$

or $x^2 + x = 72.$

Completing the square, $x^2 + x + \dfrac{1}{4} = \dfrac{289}{4}.$

Extracting the square root, $x + \dfrac{1}{2} = \pm \dfrac{17}{2};$

whence, $x = 8$ ft. or -9 ft. **Ans.**

PROOF.— $\dfrac{36}{8} = 4\frac{1}{2};\ \dfrac{36}{8+1} = 4;\ 4\frac{1}{2} - 4 = \dfrac{1}{2}.$

Or, $\dfrac{36}{-9} = -4;\ \dfrac{36}{-9+1} = -4\frac{1}{2};\ -4 - (-4\frac{1}{2}) = \dfrac{1}{2}.$

Only the positive value is required, although both values will satisfy the equation.

EXAMPLE.—A number of men ordered a yacht to be built for $6,300. Each man was to pay the same amount, but two of them withdrew, making it necessary for those remaining to advance $200 more than they otherwise would have done. How many men were there at first?

SOLUTION.—Let $x =$ the number of men at first.

Then, $\frac{6,300}{x} =$ what each was to have paid, and

$\frac{6,300}{x-2} =$ what each finally paid.

By the conditions, $\frac{6,300}{x-2} - \frac{6,300}{x} = 200.$

Clearing of fractions and combining,

$$200x^2 - 400x = 12,600,$$

$$\text{or} \quad x^2 - 2x = 63.$$

Completing the square and solving,

$$x^2 - 2x + 1 = 64.$$

$$x - 1 = \pm 8.$$

$$x = 9 \text{ or } -7. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

PROOF.— $\frac{6,300}{9} = 700$; $\frac{6,300}{9-2} = 900$; $900 - 700 = 200.$

Or, $\frac{6,300}{-7} = -900$; $\frac{6,300}{-7-2} = -700$; $-700 - (-900) = 200.$

Only the positive value can be used.

EXAMPLE.—A and B start at the same time to travel 150 miles. A travels 3 miles an hour faster than B, and finishes his journey $8\frac{1}{2}$ hours before him. How many miles did each travel per hour?

SOLUTION.—Let $x =$ number of miles A traveled per hour, and

$x - 3 =$ number of miles B traveled per hour.

Then, $\frac{150}{x} =$ the time in which A performs the journey, and

$\frac{150}{x-3} =$ the time in which B performs the journey.

By the conditions, $\frac{150}{x-3} - \frac{150}{x} = 8\frac{1}{2}.$

Clearing of fractions and combining,

$$25x^2 - 75x = 1,350,$$

$$\text{or} \quad x^2 - 3x = 54.$$

Completing the square and solving,

$$x^2 - 3x + \tfrac{9}{4} = \tfrac{225}{4}.$$

$$x - \tfrac{3}{2} = \pm \tfrac{15}{2};$$

$$\text{whence,} \quad x = 9 \text{ or } -6,$$

$$\text{and} \quad x - 3 = 6 \text{ or } -9.$$

Using the positive values, A traveled 9 miles per hour and B traveled 6 miles per hour. Ans.

603. As an illustration of the use of the negative values, consider the following explanation, which refers to the preceding example: In Fig. 1 let C be the starting

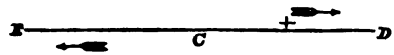

FIG. 1.

point. Call any advance in the direction of the upper arrow, or from C towards D, positive, and in the opposite direction, negative. Let E and D be each 150 miles from C. Suppose that a train of cars 150 miles long has one end at C and the other end at D, and that the train is moving in the direction from C to E at the rate of 15 miles per hour. Now, if A and B start towards D, running on the train at the rate of 9 and 6 miles per hour, respectively, while the train moves 15 miles per hour towards E, the rate of travel of A towards D is $9 - 15 = -6$ miles per hour, and of B, $6 - 15 = -9$ miles per hour. It is now evident that A is traveling towards D 3 miles per hour faster than B. When A has traveled 150 miles—in other words, when he has reached the end of the train—B has reached the point E; he has traveled negatively farther than A, but if he travels to the end of the train it will take him $8\frac{1}{3}$ hours longer than it did A.

The preceding paragraph is also an illustration of the statement in Art. **380**, that of two negative values, the one which has the less value numerically is the greater.

EQUATIONS CONTAINING TWO UNKNOWN QUANTITIES.

604. In the third problem in Art. **586** it was shown how, under certain conditions, more than one unknown quantity *in an example* may be represented *in an equation*, by expressing the value of each quantity in terms of x, thus producing only the *one unknown quantity x in the equation.*

605. Sometimes, however, each quantity is represented by a different letter, as x, y or z, in which case it is neces-

sary to have as many equations as there are unknown quantities, in order to effect a solution. For example, if it were required to find the value of x in the equation $x+y=10$, x and y being unknown quantities, we should have $x=10-y$, x being still undetermined because its value is in terms of the unknown quantity y. There must be another equation, therefore, expressing some other relation between the unknown quantities x and y, in order to fix their values. The equations which fix the values of the unknown quantities must be *independent and simultaneous.*

606. Independent equations are those which express different relations between the unknown quantities. Thus, $x+y=4$ and $xy=6$ express different relations between x and y, and are independent. But $x+y=4$ and $3x+3y=12$ are not independent, because, by dividing both members of the second equation by 3, it reduces to the first equation, and thus expresses the *same* relations between the unknown quantities.

607. Simultaneous equations are such as will be satisfied (Art. **572**) by substituting the same values for the same unknown quantities in each equation.

608. Equations containing more than one unknown quantity are solved by so combining them as to obtain a single equation containing but one unknown quantity. This process is called **elimination.** In what follows, equations containing two unknown quantities will be considered.

609. To Eliminate by Substitution:

Rule.—*From one equation, find the value of one of the unknown quantities in terms of the other. Substitute this value for the same unknown quantity in the other equation.*

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equations:

$$2x+3y=18. \qquad (1)$$
$$3x-2y=1. \qquad (2)$$

SOLUTION.—It will be more convenient to first find the value of x in (2), since, after transposing $-2y$ to the second member, it will become positive.

Transposing $-2y$ in (2), $3x=1+2y$.

Dividing both members by 3,

$$x = \frac{1 + 2y}{3}. \qquad (3)$$

This gives the value of x in terms of y.

Substituting this value of x for the x in (1),

$$\frac{2(1 + 2y)}{3} + 3y = 18.$$

Removing the parenthesis,

$$\frac{2 + 4y}{3} + 3y = 18.$$

Clearing of fractions, $2 + 4y + 9y = 54.$

Transposing the 2 and uniting the $4y$ and $9y$,

$$13y = 52;$$

whence, $y = 4.$ Ans.

Now, having the value of y, we may substitute it for y in any of the above equations containing both x and y, and thus obtain a value for x.

Substituting this value in equation (3),

$$x = \frac{1 + 2 \times 4}{3};$$

whence, $x = 3.$ Ans.

610. To Eliminate by Comparison:

Rule.—*From each equation find the value of one of the unknown quantities in terms of the other. Form a new equation by placing these two values equal to each other and solve.*

Elimination by comparison depends upon the principle that quantities which are equal to the same or two equal quantities are equal to each other. Thus, if $y = 2$, and $x = 2$, y is evidently equal to x.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the same equations as before:

$$2x + 3y = 18. \qquad (1)$$
$$3x - 2y = 1. \qquad (2)$$

SOLUTION.—First obtain the value of x in each equation, it being more convenient to obtain in this case than y.

Transposing $3y$ in (1), $2x = 18 - 3y$,

$$\text{or} \quad x = \frac{18 - 3y}{2}. \qquad (3)$$

Transposing $-2y$ in (2), $3x = 1 + 2y$,

$$\text{or} \quad x = \frac{1 + 2y}{3}. \qquad (4)$$

Placing the values of x in (3) and (4) equal to each other,

$$\frac{18 - 3y}{2} = \frac{1 + 2y}{3}.$$

Clearing of fractions, $54 - 9y = 2 + 4y.$

Transposing and uniting terms,

$$-13y = -52;$$

whence, $y = 4$. Ans.

Substituting this value in (4),

$$x = \frac{1+8}{3} = 3. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

611. To Eliminate by Addition or Subtraction:

Rule.—*Select the unknown quantity to be eliminated, and multiply the equations by such numbers as will make the coefficients of this quantity equal in the resulting equations. If the signs of the terms having the same coefficient are alike, subtract one equation from the other; if unlike, add the two equations.*

It is evident that this will not destroy the equality, because adding or subtracting two equations is equivalent to adding the same quantity to, or subtracting it from, both members.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the same equations as before:

$$2x + 3y = 18. \quad (1)$$
$$3x - 2y = 1. \quad (2)$$

FIRST SOLUTION.—Since the signs of the terms containing x in each equation are alike, x may be eliminated by subtraction. If the first equation be multiplied by 3 and the second by 2, the coefficients of x in each equation will become equal. Hence,

Multiplying (1) by 3, $6x + 9y = 54$. (3)

Multiplying (2) by 2, $6x - 4y = 2$. (4)

Subtracting (4) from (3), $13y = 52$;

whence, $y = 4$. Ans.

Substituting this value of y for the y in (2),

$$3x - 8 = 1.$$

Transposing, $3x = 9$,

or $x = 3$. Ans.

SECOND SOLUTION.— $2x + 3y = 18$. (1)

$3x - 2y = 1$. (2)

Since the signs of the terms containing y in each equation are unlike, y may be eliminated by addition.

Multiplying (1) by 2, $4x + 6y = 36$. (3)

Multiplying (2) by 3, $9x - 6y = 3$. (4)

Adding (3) and (4), $13x = 39$;

whence, $x = 3$. Ans.

Substituting in (1), $6 + 3y = 18$.

$3y = 12$.

$y = 4$. Ans.

MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES.

612. From the foregoing it will be seen that any one of the three methods of elimination *can* be applied to the solution of equations. The student must use his judgment as to which is the *best* one to apply in any case.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equations:

$$\frac{3}{x}+\frac{1}{y}=\frac{5}{4}. \qquad (1)$$

$$\frac{2}{x}-\frac{3}{y}=-1. \qquad (2)$$

SOLUTION.—Multiplying (1) by 3,

$$\frac{9}{x}+\frac{3}{y}=\frac{15}{4}. \qquad (3)$$

Adding (2) and (3),

$$\frac{11}{x}=\frac{15}{4}-1=\frac{15}{4}-\frac{4}{4}=\frac{11}{4}.$$

Clearing of fractions, $44=11x$,

or $x=4$. Ans.

Substituting this value of x in (1),

$$\frac{3}{4}+\frac{1}{y}=\frac{5}{4}.$$

Clearing of fractions, $3y+4=5y$,

Transposing, $-2y=-4$,

or $y=2$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equations:

$$x+36y=900. \qquad (1)$$

$$36x+y=1320. \qquad (2)$$

SOLUTION.—Adding (1) and (2),

$$37x+37y=2220. \qquad (3)$$

Dividing by 37, $x+y=60$. (4)

Subtracting (4) from (1), $35y=840$.

$y=24$. Ans.

Substituting this value in (4),

$x+24=60$.

$x=36$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equations:

$$\frac{m}{x}+\frac{n}{y}=a. \qquad (1)$$

$$\frac{n}{x}+\frac{m}{y}=b. \qquad (2)$$

SOLUTION.—Multiplying (1) by m,

$$\frac{m^2}{x}+\frac{mn}{y}=am. \qquad (3)$$

Multiplying (2) by n, $\frac{n^2}{x}+\frac{mn}{y}=bn$. (4)

Subtracting (4) from (3),

$$\frac{m^2 - n^2}{x} = am - bn.$$

Clearing of fractions, $m^2 - n^2 = (am - bn)x$;

whence, $x = \dfrac{m^2 - n^2}{am - bn}$. Ans.

Multiplying (1) by n, $\dfrac{mn}{x} + \dfrac{n^2}{y} = an.$ (5)

Multiplying (2) by m, $\dfrac{mn}{x} + \dfrac{m^2}{y} = bm.$ (6)

Subtracting (6) from (5),

$$\frac{n^2 - m^2}{y} = an - bm.$$

Clearing of fractions, $n^2 - m^2 = (an - bm)y$;

whence, $y = \dfrac{n^2 - m^2}{an - bm}$, or $\dfrac{m^2 - n^2}{bm - an}$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

613. Solve the following equations:

1. $\left.\begin{array}{l} 3x + 7y = 33. \\ 2x + 4y = 20. \end{array}\right\}$ Ans. $\left\{\begin{array}{l} x = 4. \\ y = 3. \end{array}\right.$

2. $\left.\begin{array}{l} 8y + 12x = 116. \\ 2x - y = 3. \end{array}\right\}$ Ans. $\left\{\begin{array}{l} x = 5. \\ y = 7. \end{array}\right.$

3. $\left.\begin{array}{l} ax + by = m. \\ cx + dy = n. \end{array}\right\}$ Ans. $\left\{\begin{array}{l} x = \dfrac{dm - bn}{ad - bc}. \\ y = \dfrac{an - cm}{ad - bc}. \end{array}\right.$

4. $\left.\begin{array}{l} \dfrac{a}{x} + \dfrac{b}{y} = m. \\ \dfrac{c}{x} + \dfrac{d}{y} = n. \end{array}\right\}$ Ans. $\left\{\begin{array}{l} x = \dfrac{ad - bc}{dm - bn}. \\ y = \dfrac{bc - ad}{cm - an}. \end{array}\right.$

5. $\left.\begin{array}{l} \dfrac{6}{x} - \dfrac{3}{y} = 4. \\ \dfrac{8}{x} + \dfrac{15}{y} = -1. \end{array}\right\}$ Ans. $\left\{\begin{array}{l} x = 2. \\ y = -3. \end{array}\right.$

QUADRATIC EQUATIONS CONTAINING TWO UNKNOWN QUANTITIES.

614. The methods of solving will be illustrated by the solution of a few examples:

Case I.—*When elimination may be performed by the methods given for simple equations in Arts.* **609–611.**

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equations:

$$x^2 + y^2 = 13. \qquad (1)$$
$$x + y = 1. \qquad (2)$$

SOLUTION.—Transposing the x in (2),

$$y = 1 - x. \qquad (3)$$

Substituting the value of y in (1),

$$x^2 + (1 - x)^2 = 13,$$
$$\text{or} \quad x^2 + 1 - 2x + x^2 = 13.$$

Transposing and uniting terms,

$$2x^2 - 2x = 12,$$
$$\text{or} \quad x^2 - x = 6.$$

Completing the square, and solving,

$$x^2 - x + \tfrac{1}{4} = \tfrac{25}{4}.$$
$$x - \tfrac{1}{2} = \pm \tfrac{5}{2}.$$
$$x = 3 \text{ or } -2.$$

Now, two values must be found for y which will satisfy the equations when $x = 3$ and $x = -2$.

Substituting these values of x in (3), we have,

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{when } x = 3,\ y = -2\,; \\ \text{when } x = -2,\ y = 3.\end{array}\right\} \text{ Ans.}$$

This is the form in which answers to simultaneous quadratic equations should always be written.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equations:

$$4x^2 - 3y^2 = -11. \qquad (1)$$
$$11x^2 + 5y^2 = 301. \qquad (2)$$

SOLUTION.—Multiplying (1) by (5),

$$20x^2 - 15y^2 = -55. \qquad (3)$$

Multiplying (2) by (3),

$$33x^2 + 15y^2 = 903. \qquad (4)$$

Adding (3) and (4), $\quad 53x^2 = 848,$

$$\text{or} \quad x^2 = 16.$$

Extracting the square root, $\quad x = \pm 4.$

Substituting $+4$ for x in (2),

$$11 \times 16 + 5y^2 = 301.$$
$$\text{or} \quad 5y^2 = 125.$$
$$y^2 = 25.$$
$$y = \pm 5.$$

Substituting -4 for x in (2) will evidently give the same result, since $(-4)^2 = 16$, the same as 4^2. Hence,

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{when } x = 4,\ y = \pm 5\,; \\ \text{when } x = -4,\ y = \pm 5.\end{array}\right\} \text{ Ans.}$$

615. Case II.—*When the equations may be so combined or reduced as to produce an equation having for the first*

member an expression of the form $x^2 + 2xy + y^2$, *or* $x^2 - 2xy + y^2$.

No rule can be given for solving examples under this case. The student must depend upon his own ingenuity.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equations:

$$x^2 + y^2 = 25. \qquad (1)$$
$$xy = 12. \qquad (2)$$

SOLUTION.—Multiplying (2) by 2,

$$2xy = 24. \qquad (3)$$

Adding (1) and (3), $\quad x^2 + 2xy + y^2 = 49. \qquad (4)$

Subtracting (3) from (1),

$$x^2 - 2xy + y^2 = 1. \qquad (5)$$

Extracting the square root of (4),

$$x + y = \pm 7. \qquad (6)$$

Extracting the square root of (5),

$$x - y = \pm 1. \qquad (7)$$

This gives two simple equations, from which either x or y may be eliminated by subtraction or addition. Adding (6) and (7), the first member of the new equation will be $2x$, and the second member may have four values as follows:

$$7 + 1,\ 7 - 1,\ -7 + 1 \text{ or } -7 - 1,$$
$$\text{or} \quad 2x = 8,\ 6,\ -6 \text{ or } -8;$$
$$\text{whence,} \quad x = 4,\ 3,\ -3 \text{ or } -4.$$

By substituting these values in (2), we have for the corresponding values of y, $y = 3,\ 4,\ -4$, or -3.

These values may also be obtained by subtracting (7) from (6). The answers would be written,

$$\text{when} \quad \left.\begin{array}{l} x = 4,\ y = 3;\ x = 3,\ y = 4; \\ x = -3,\ y = -4;\ x = -4\ y = -3. \end{array}\right\} \text{ Ans.}$$

NOTE.—In solving examples under this case, the object is always to produce two equations, one with $x + y$ and one with $x - y$ for the first member, from which the value of x or y can easily be found.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equations:

$$x^3 + y^3 = 133. \qquad (1)$$
$$x^2 - xy + y^2 = 19. \qquad (2)$$

SOLUTION.—Since both members of (1) may be divided by the same quantity without destroying the equality, they may be divided by equal quantities. Hence, dividing (1) by (2), member by member,

$$x + y = 7. \qquad (3)$$

This gives at once an equation with $x + y$ for the first member. To obtain a value for $x - y$, it will be noticed that the first member of (2) lacks only one $-xy$ of being $x^2 - 2xy + y^2$, from which $x - y$ may be obtained; hence, we should proceed to obtain a value for $-xy$, to add to (2).

Squaring (3), $x^2 + 2xy + y^2 = 49.$ (4)

Writing (2) under (4), $x^2 - xy + y^2 = 19,$

and subtracting, $3xy = 30,$

or $xy = 10.$ (5)

Subtracting (5) from (2),

$$x^2 - 2xy + y^2 = 9.$$

Extracting the square root,

$$x - y = \pm 3. \quad (6)$$

Adding (6) and (3), $2x = 10$ or $4.$

$x = 5$ or $2.$

Subtracting (6) from (3), $2y = 4$ or $10.$

$y = 2$ or $5.$

Or, solving (5) for x, $x = \frac{10}{y}.$

Substituting the value of x in (3),

$$\frac{10}{y} + y = 7.$$

Clearing of fractions and changing signs,

$$y^2 - 7y = -10.$$

Solving for y, $y = 5$ or $2.$

Substituting their values in (3),

$x = 2$ or $5.$

Hence, when $\left.\begin{array}{l} x = 5,\ y = 2; \\ x = 2,\ y = 5. \end{array}\right\}$ Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

616. Solve the following equations:

1. $\left.\begin{array}{l} x^2 + y^2 = 29. \\ x + y = 3. \end{array}\right\}$ Ans. $\left\{\begin{array}{l} x = 5,\ y = -2. \\ x = -2,\ y = 5. \end{array}\right.$

2. $\left.\begin{array}{l} 2x^2 + y^2 = 9. \\ 5x^2 + 6y^2 = 26. \end{array}\right\}$ Ans. $\left\{\begin{array}{l} x = 2,\ y = \pm 1. \\ x = -2,\ y = \pm 1. \end{array}\right.$

3. $\left.\begin{array}{l} x + y = -1. \\ xy = -56. \end{array}\right\}$ Ans. $\left\{\begin{array}{l} x = 7,\ y = -8. \\ x = -8,\ y = 7. \end{array}\right.$

PROBLEMS LEADING TO EQUATIONS WITH TWO UNKNOWN QUANTITIES.

617. A few examples involving quadratics with two unknown quantities will now be given. The student should pay particular attention to the manner in which the equations are formed from the conditions given.

EXAMPLE.—A certain fraction becomes equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ if 3 is added to its numerator, and equal to $\frac{3}{7}$ if 3 is added to its denominator. What is the fraction?

SOLUTION.—Let $\frac{x}{y}$ = the required fraction.

By the conditions $\frac{x+3}{y} = \frac{1}{2}$, and

$$\frac{x}{y+3} = \frac{3}{7}.$$

Solving these equations, $x = 6$ and $y = 18$.
That is, the fraction is $\frac{6}{18}$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—A crew can row 20 miles in 2 hours down stream, and 12 miles in 3 hours up stream. Required, the rate per hour of the current, and the rate per hour at which the crew would row in still water.

SOLUTION.—Let x = rate per hour of crew in still water, and
y = rate per hour of current.

Then, $x + y$ = rate per hour rowing down stream, and
$x - y$ = rate per hour rowing up stream.

Since they row 20 miles in two hours down stream, in one hour, they would row $\frac{20}{2} = 10$ miles, or at the rate of 10 miles per hour. Also, in rowing up stream, they would row at the rate of $\frac{12}{3} = 4$ miles per hour.

Consequently, $x + y = 10.$ (1)
$x - y = 4.$ (2)

Adding, $2x = 14,$
or $x = 7.$

Subtracting, $2y = 6,$
or $y = 3.$

Hence, the rate of the crew is 7 miles per hour, and of the current, 3 miles per hour. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—A wine merchant has two kinds of wine, which cost 72 cents and 40 cents a quart, respectively. How much of each must he take to make a mixture of 50 quarts worth 60 cents a quart?

SOLUTION.—Let x = required number of quarts at 72 cents, and
y = required number of quarts at 40 cents.

Then, $72x$ = cost in cents of the first kind;
$40y$ = cost in cents of the second kind, and
$60 \times 50 = 3{,}000$ = cost in cents of the mixture.

By the conditions, $x + y = 50$, and
$72x + 40y = 3{,}000.$

Solving, $x = 31\frac{1}{4}$ qts. and $y = 18\frac{3}{4}$ qts. Ans.

LOGARITHMS.

EXPONENTS.

618. By the use of logarithms, the processes of multiplication, division, involution, and evolution, are greatly shortened, and some operations may be performed that would be impossible without them. Ordinary logarithms cannot be applied to addition and subtraction.

619. The **logarithm** of a number is that *exponent* by which some fixed number, called the **base,** must be affected in order to equal the number. Any number may be taken as the base. Suppose we choose 4. Then, the logarithm of 16 is 2, because 2 is the exponent by which 4 (the base) must be affected in order to equal 16, since $4^2 = 16$. In this case, instead of reading 4^2 as 4 square, read it 4 exponent 2. With the same base, the logarithms of 64 and 8 would be 3 and 1.5, respectively, since $4^3 = 64$, and $4^{1.5} = 4^{\frac{3}{2}} = 8$. In these cases, as in the preceding, read 4^3 and $4^{1.5}$ as 4 exponent 3, and 4 exponent 1.5, respectively.

620. Although any number *can* be used as a base, and a table of logarithms calculated, but two numbers have ever been employed. For all arithmetical operations (except addition and subtraction), the logarithms used are called the **Briggs** or **common** logarithms, and the base used is 10. In abstract mathematical analysis, the logarithms used are variously called **hyperbolic, Napierian,** or **natural** logarithms, and the base is 2.718281828+. The common logarithm of any number may be converted into a Napierian logarithm by multiplying the common logarithm by 2.30258508+, which is usually abbreviated to 2.3026, and sometimes to 2.3. Only the common system of logarithms will be considered in this Course.

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621. Since, in the common system, the base is 10, it follows that, since $10^1 = 10$; $10^2 = 100$; $10^3 = 1{,}000$, etc., the logarithm (exponent) of 10 is 1; of 100 is 2; of 1,000 is 3, etc. For the sake of brevity in writing, the words "logarithm of," are abbreviated to "log." Thus, instead of writing logarithm of $100 = 2$, write $\log 100 = 2$. When speaking, however, the words for which "log" stands should always be pronounced in full.

622. From the above it will be seen (see Arts. **439** and **529**) that, when the base is 10,

Since $10^0 = 1$, the exponent $0 = \log 1$;
" $10^1 = 10$, " " $1 =$ " 10;
" $10^2 = 100$, " " $2 =$ " 100;
" $10^3 = 1{,}000$, " " $3 =$ " 1,000, etc.

Also,

Since $10^{-1} = \frac{1}{10} = .1$ the exponent $-1 = \log .1$;
" $10^{-2} = \frac{1}{100} = .01$, " " $-2 =$ " .01;
" $10^{-3} = \frac{1}{1000} = .001$, " " $-3 =$ " .001, etc.

From this it will be seen that the logarithms of exact powers of 10 and of decimals like .1, .01, and .001 are the whole numbers 1, 2, 3, etc., and -1, -2, -3, etc., respectively. *Only numbers consisting of 1 and one or more ciphers have whole numbers for logarithms.*

623. Now, it is evident that to produce a number between 1 and 10, the exponent of 10 must be a fraction; to produce a number between 10 and 100, it must be 1 plus a fraction; to produce a number between 100 and 1,000, it must be 2 plus a fraction, etc. Hence, the logarithm of any number between 1 and 10 is a fraction; of any number between 10 and 100, 1 plus a fraction; of any number between 100 and 1,000, 2 plus a fraction, etc. A logarithm, therefore, usually consists of two parts, a whole number, called the **characteristic,** and a fraction, called the **mantissa.** The mantissa is always expressed as a decimal. For example, to produce 20, 10 must have an exponent of *approximately* 1.30103, or $10^{1.30103} = 20$, very nearly, the degree of exactness depending upon the number of decimal

places used. Hence, log 20 = 1.30103, 1 being the characteristic and .30103 the mantissa.

624. Referring to the second part of the table, Art. **622**, it is clear that the logarithms of all numbers less than 1 are negative, the logarithms of those between 1 and .1 being -1 plus a fraction. For, since log .1 = -1, the logarithms of .2, .3, etc. (which are all greater than .1, but less than 1), must be greater than -1; i. e., they must equal -1 *plus* a fraction. For the same reason, to produce a number between .1 and .01, the logarithm (exponent of 10) would be equal to -2 plus a fraction, and for a number between .01 and .001, it would be equal to -3 plus a fraction. Hence, the logarithm of any number between 1 and .1 has a negative characteristic of 1, and a positive mantissa; of a number between .1 and .01, a negative characteristic of 2, and a positive mantissa; of a number between .01 and .001, a negative characteristic of 3, and a positive mantissa; of a number between .001 and .0001, a negative characteristic of 4, and a positive mantissa, etc. *The negative characteristics are distinguished from the positive by the — sign written over the characteristic.* Thus, $\bar{3}$ indicates that 3 is negative.

It must be remembered that in all cases the mantissa is positive. Thus, the logarithm 1.30103 means $+1+.30103$, and the logarithm $\bar{1}.30103$ means $-1+.30103$. Were the minus sign written in front of the characteristic, it would indicate that the entire logarithm was negative. Thus, $-1.30103 = -1 - .30103$.

625. Rules for Characteristic.—From Art. **624**, it follows that:

I. *For a number greater than 1 the characteristic is one less than the number of integral places in the number.*

By "integral places" is meant the figures (including ciphers) to the left of the decimal point.

II. *For a number wholly decimal, the characteristic is negative, and is numerically one greater than the number of*

ciphers between the decimal point and the first digit of the decimal.

For example, the characteristics of the logarithms of 256, 31.24, 7.53, and 1,728.0036, are 2, 1, 0, and 3, respectively, or *one less* than the number of integral places in each case; the characteristics of the logarithms of .0005, .0674, and .50072, are $\bar{4}$, $\bar{2}$, and $\bar{1}$, respectively, or numerically *one greater* than the number of ciphers immediately following the decimal point. It will be noticed that in the last number there are no ciphers, and the characteristic is $0 + \bar{1} = \bar{1}$.

THE LOGARITHMIC TABLE.

TO FIND THE LOGARITHM OF A NUMBER.

626. To aid in obtaining the mantissas of logarithms, *tables of logarithms* have been calculated, some of which are very elaborate and convenient. In the Table of Logarithms, the mantissas of the logarithms of numbers, from 1 to 9,999, are given to five places of decimals, and the mantissas of logarithms of larger numbers can be found by interpolation. The table contains the *mantissas only*, and the characteristics may be easily found by the rules of Art. **625.**

The table depends upon the principle, which will be explained later, that all numbers having the same figures in the same order, have their mantissas alike, without regard to the position of the decimal point, which affects the characteristic only. To illustrate, if log 206 = 2.31387, then,

log 20.6 = 1.31387. log .206 = $\bar{1}$.31387.
log 2.06 = .31387. log .0206 = $\bar{2}$.31387, etc.

627. To find the logarithm of a number not having more than four figures:

Rule.—*Find the first three significant figures of the number whose logarithm is desired, in the left-hand column; find the fourth figure in the column at the top (or bottom) of the page, and in the column under (or above) this figure, and*

opposite the first three figures previously found will be the mantissa or decimal part of the logarithm. The characteristic being found as described in Art. **625**, *write it at the left of the mantissa, and the resulting expression will be the logarithm of the required number.*

628. EXAMPLE.—Find the logarithm (*a*) of 476; (*b*) of 25.47; (*c*) of 1.073, and (*d*) of .06313.

SOLUTION.—(*a*) In order to economize space, and make the labor of finding the logarithms easier, the first two figures of the mantissa are given only in the column headed 0. The last three figures of the mantissa, opposite 476 in the column headed N (N stands for number), page 9 of the tables, are 761, found in the column headed 0; glancing upwards, we find the first two figures of the mantissa, viz., 67. The characteristic is 2; hence, log 476 = 2.67761. Ans.

NOTE.—Since all numbers in the table are decimal fractions, the decimal point is omitted throughout; this is customary in all tables of logarithms.

(*b*) To find the logarithm of 25.47, we find the first three figures 254, in the column headed N on page 5, and on the same horizontal line, under the column headed 7 (the fourth figure of the given number), will be found the last three figures of the mantissa, viz., 603. The first two figures are evidently 40, and the characteristic is 1; hence, log 25.47 = 1.40603. Ans.

(*c*) For 1.073, the last three figures of the mantissa are found in the usual manner, in the column headed 3, opposite 107 in the column headed N on page 2, to be 060. It will be noticed that these figures are printed *060, the star meaning that instead of glancing *upwards* in the column headed 0, and taking 02 for the first two figures, we must glance *down* and take the two figures opposite the number 108, in the left-hand column, i. e., 03. The characteristic being 0, log 1.073 = 0.03060, or, more simply, .03060.

(*d*) For .06313, the last three figures of the mantissa are found opposite 631, in column headed 3 on page 12, to be 024. In this case, the first two figures occur in the same row, and are 80. Since the characteristic is $\bar{2}$, log .06313 = $\bar{2}$.80024. Ans.

629. If the original number contains but one digit (a cipher is not a digit), annex mentally two ciphers to the right of the digit; if the number contains but two digits (with no ciphers between, as in 48), annex mentally one cipher on the right, before seeking the mantissa. Thus, if the logarithm of 7 is wanted, seek the mantissa for 700, which is .84510 or, if the logarithm of 48 is wanted, seek the mantissa for

480, which is .68124. Or, find the mantissas of logarithms of numbers between 0 and 100, on the first page of the tables.

The process of finding the logarithm of a number from the table is technically called **taking out the logarithm.**

630. To take out the logarithm of a number consisting of more than four figures, it is inexpedient to use more than five figures of the number, when using five-place logarithms (the logarithms given in the accompanying table are five-place). Hence, if the number consists of more than five figures, and the sixth figure is less than 5, replace all figures after the fifth with ciphers; if the sixth figure is 5 or more, increase the fifth figure by one, and replace the remaining figures with ciphers. Thus, if the number is 31,415,926, find the logarithm of 31,416,000; if 31,415,426, find the logarithm of 31,415,000.

631. EXAMPLE.—Find log 31,416.

SOLUTION.—Find the mantissa of the logarithm of the first four figures, as explained above. This is, in the present case, .49707 (see page 6). Now, subtract the number in the column headed 1, opposite 314 (the first three figures of the given number), from the next greater consecutive number, in this case 721, in the column headed 2. $721 - 707 = 14$; this number is called the **difference.** At the extreme right of the page will be found a secondary table headed P. P., and at the top of one of these columns, in this table, in bold-face type, will be found the difference. It will be noticed that each column is divided into two parts by a vertical line, and that the figures on the left of this line run in sequence from 1 to 9. Considering the difference column headed 14, we see opposite the number 6 (6 is the last or fifth figure of the number whose logarithm we are taking out) the number 8.4, and we add this number to the mantissa found above, disregarding the decimal point in the mantissa, obtaining $49707 + 8.4 = 49715.4$. Now, since 4 is less than 5, we reject it, and obtain for our complete mantissa .49715. Since the characteristic of the logarithm of 31,416 is 4, log $31,416 = 4.49715$. Ans.

632. EXAMPLE.—Find log 380.93.

SOLUTION.—Proceeding in exactly the same manner as above, the mantissa for 3,809 is 58081 (the star directs us to take 58 instead of 57 for the first two figures), the next greater mantissa is 58092, found in the column headed 0, opposite 381 in column headed N. The difference is $092 - 081 = 11$. Looking in the section headed P. P., for column

headed 11, we find opposite 3, 3.3; neglecting the .3, since it is less than 5, 3 is the amount to be added to the mantissa of the logarithm of 3809 to form the logarithm of 38093. Hence, 58081 + 3 = 58084, and since the characteristic is 2, log 380.93 = 2.58084. Ans.

633. EXAMPLE.—Find log 1,296,728.

SOLUTION.—Since this number consists of more than five figures and the sixth figure is less than 5, we find the logarithm of 1,296,700, and call it the logarithm of 1,296,728. The mantissa of log 1,296 is found on page 2 to be 11261. The difference is 294 − 261 = 33. Looking in the P. P. section for column headed 33, we find opposite 7 on the extreme left, 23.1; neglecting the .1, the amount to be added to the above mantissa is 23. Hence, the mantissa of log 1,296,728 = 11261 + 23 = 11284; since the characteristic is 6, log 1,296,728 = 6.11284. Ans.

634. EXAMPLE.—Find log 89.126.

SOLUTION.—Log 89.12 = 1.94998. Difference between this and log 89.13 = 1.95002 − 1.94998 = 4. The P. P. (proportional part) for the fifth figure of the number, 6, is 2.4, or 2.

Hence, log 89.126 = 1.94998 + .00002 = 1.95000. Ans.

635. EXAMPLE.—Find log .096725.

SOLUTION.—	Log .09672 = $\bar{2}$.98552.	Difference = 4.
	P. P. for 5 = 2	
Hence,	log .096725 = $\bar{2}$.98554.	Ans.

636. To find the logarithm of a number consisting of five or more figures:

Rule.—I. *If the number consists of more than five figures and the sixth figure is 5 or greater, increase the fifth figure by 1, and write ciphers in place of the sixth and remaining figures.*

II. *Find the mantissa corresponding to the logarithm of the first four figures, and subtract this mantissa from the next greater mantissa in the table; the remainder is the difference.*

III. *Find in the secondary table headed P. P. a column headed by the same number as that just found for the difference, and in this column opposite the number corresponding to the fifth figure (or fifth figure increased by 1) of the given number (this figure is always situated at the left of the dividing line of the column) will be found the P. P. (propor-*

tional part) for that number. The P. P. thus found is to be added to the mantissa found in II, as in the preceding examples, and the result is the mantissa of the logarithm of the given number, as nearly as may be found with five-place tables.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

637. Find the logarithms of the following numbers:

1.	.062.	Ans. $\bar{2}.79239$.
2.	620.	Ans. 2.79239.
3.	21.4.	Ans. 1.33041.
4.	.000067.	Ans. $\bar{5}.82607$.
5.	89.42.	Ans. 1.95143.
6.	.785398.	Ans. $\bar{1}.89509$.
7.	.0010823.	Ans. $\bar{3}.03435$.
8.	10,000.	Ans. 4.
9.	1,923.208.	Ans. 3.28403.
10.	3.00026.	Ans. .47717.

TO FIND A NUMBER WHOSE LOGARITHM IS GIVEN.

638. Rule I.—*Consider the mantissa first. Glance along the different columns of the table which are headed 0 until the first two figures of the mantissa are found. Then glance down the same column until the third figure is found (or 1 less than the third figure). Having found the first three figures, glance to the right along the row in which they are situated until the last three figures of the mantissa are found. Then, the number which heads the column in which the last three figures of the mantissa are found is the fourth figure of the required number, and the first three figures lie in the column headed N, and in the same row in which lie the last three figures of the mantissa.*

II. *If the mantissa cannot be found in the table, find the mantissa which is nearest to, but less than, the given mantissa, and which call the* **next less mantissa.** *Subtract the next less mantissa from the next greater mantissa in the table to obtain the difference. Also subtract the next less mantissa from the mantissa of the given logarithm, and call the remainder the P. P. Looking in the secondary table headed P. P. for*

the column headed by the difference just found, find the number opposite the P. P. just found (or the P. P. corresponding most nearly to that just found); this number is the fifth figure of the required number; the fourth figure will be found at the top of the column containing the next less mantissa, and the first three figures in the column headed N and in the same row which contains the next less mantissa.

III. *Having found the figures of the number as above directed, locate the decimal point by the rules for the characteristic, annexing ciphers to bring the number up to the required number of figures if the characteristic is greater than 4.*

639. EXAMPLE.—Find the number whose logarithm is 3.56867.

SOLUTION.—The first two figures of the mantissa, 56, are found on page 7; glancing down the column, we find the third figure, 8 (in connection with 820), opposite 370 in the N column. Glancing to the right along the row containing 820, the last three figures of the mantissa, 867, are found in the column headed 4; hence, the fourth figure of the required number is 4, and the first three figures are 370, making the figures of the required number 3704. Since the characteristic is 3, there are four figures to the left of the decimal point, and the number whose logarithm is 3.56867 is 3,704. Ans.

640. EXAMPLE.—Find the number whose logarithm is 3.56871.

SOLUTION.—The mantissa is not found in the table. The next less mantissa is 56867; the difference between this and the next greater mantissa is $879 - 867 = 12$, and the P. P. is $56871 - 56867 = 4$. Looking in the P. P. section for the column headed 12, we do not find 4, but we do find 3.6 and 4.8. Since 3.6 is nearer 4 than 4.8, we take the number opposite 3.6 for the fifth figure of the required number; this is 3. Hence, the fourth figure is 4; the first three figures 370, and the figures of the number are 37043. The characteristic being 3, the number is 3,704.3. Ans.

641. EXAMPLE.—Find the number whose logarithm is 5.95424.

SOLUTION.—The mantissa is found in the column headed 0 on page 18, opposite 900 in the column headed N. Hence, the fourth figure is 0, and the number is 900,000, the characteristic being 5. Ans. Had the logarithm been $\bar{5}.95424$, the number would have been .00009.

642. EXAMPLE.—Find the number whose logarithm is .93036.

SOLUTION.—The first three figures of the mantissa, 930, are found in the 0 column opposite 852 in the N column, but since the last two figures of all the mantissas in this row are greater than 36, we must seek

the next less mantissa in the preceding row. We find it to be 93034 (the star directing us to use 93 instead of 92 for the first two figures) in the column headed 8. The difference for this case is 039 − 034 = 5, and the P. P. is 036 − 034 = 2. Looking in the P. P. section for the column headed 5, we find the P. P., 2, opposite 4. Hence, the fifth figure is 4; the fourth figure is 8; the first three figures 851, and the number is 8.5184, the characteristic being 0. Ans.

643. EXAMPLE.—Find the number whose logarithm is $\bar{2}.05753$.

SOLUTION.—The next less mantissa is found in column headed 1 opposite 114 in the N column, page 2; hence, the first four figures are 1141. The difference for this case is 767 − 729 = 38, and the P. P. is 753 − 729 = 24. Looking in the P. P. section for the column headed 38, we find that 24 falls between 22.8 and 26.6. The difference between 24 and 22.8 is 1.2, and between 24 and 26.6 is 2.6; hence, 24 is nearer 22.8 than it is to 26.6, and 6, opposite 22.8, is the fifth figure of the number. Hence, number whose logarithm is $\bar{2}.05753$ = .011416. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

644. Find the numbers corresponding to the following logarithms:

1.	.74429.	Ans. 5.55.
2.	4.38202.	Ans. 24,100.
3.	$\bar{1}.84510$.	Ans. .7.
4.	1.84510.	Ans. 70.
5.	$\bar{4}.96047$.	Ans. .000918.
6.	3.78942.	Ans. 6,157.7.
7.	.50210.	Ans. 3.1776.
8.	$\bar{3}.63491$.	Ans. .0043143.
9.	$\bar{1}.07619$.	Ans. .11918.
10.	$\bar{3}.23417$.	Ans. .0017146.

645. In order to calculate by means of logarithms, a table is absolutely necessary. Hence, for this reason, we do not explain the method of calculating a logarithm. The work involved in calculating even a single logarithm is very great, and no method has yet been demonstrated, of which we are aware, by which the logarithm of a number like 121 can be calculated directly. Moreover, even if the logarithm could be readily obtained, it would be useless without a complete table, such as that which forms a part of this Course, for the reason that after having used it, say to extract a root, the number corresponding to the logarithm of the result could not be found.

MULTIPLICATION BY LOGARITHMS.

646. The principle upon which the process is based may be illustrated as follows: Let X and Y represent two numbers whose logarithms are x and y. To find the logarithm of their product, we have, from the definition of a logarithm,

$$10^x = X, \quad (1)$$
$$\text{and } 10^y = Y. \quad (2)$$

Since both members of (1) may be multiplied by the same quantity without destroying the equality, they evidently may be multiplied by equal quantities like 10^y and Y. Hence, multiplying (1) by (2), member by member,

$$10^x \times 10^y = 10^{x+y} = X\,Y \text{ (Art. } \mathbf{418}\text{)};$$

or, by the definition of a logarithm, $x + y = \log X\,Y$. But $X\,Y$ is the product of X and Y, and $x + y$ is the sum of their logarithms; from which it follows that the sum of the logarithms of two members is equal to the logarithm of their product. Hence,

647. To multiply two or more numbers by using logarithms:

Rule.—*Add the logarithms of the several numbers, and the sum will be the logarithm of the product. Find the number corresponding to this logarithm, and the result will be the number sought.*

EXAMPLE.—Multiply 4.38, 5.217, and 83 together.

SOLUTION.—

Log 4.38 =	.64147
Log 5.217 =	.71742
Log 83 =	1.91908
Adding,	3.27797 = log (4.38 × 5.217 × 83).

Number corresponding to 3.27797 = 1,896.6. Hence, 4.38 × 5.217 × 83 = 1,896.6, nearly. Ans. By actual multiplication, the product is 1,896.58818, showing that the result obtained by using logarithms was correct to five figures.

648. When adding logarithms, their *algebraic* sum is always to be found. Hence, if some of their numbers multiplied together are wholly decimal, the algebraic sum of the characteristics will be the characteristic of the product. It must be remembered that the mantissas are always positive.

EXAMPLE.—Multiply 49.82, .00243, 17, and .97 together.

SOLUTION.—Log 49.82 = 1.69740
Log .00243 = $\bar{3}$.38561
Log 17 = 1.23045
Log .97 = $\bar{1}$.98677

Adding, 0.30023 = log (49.82 × .00243 × 17 × .97).

Number corresponding to 0.30023 = 1.9963. Hence, 49.82 × .00243 × 17 × .97 = 1.9963. Ans.

In this case the sum of the mantissas was 2.30023. The integral 2 added to the positive characteristics makes their sum = 2 + 1 + 1 = 4; sum of negative characteristics = $\bar{3} + \bar{1} = \bar{4}$, whence 4 + (− 4) = 0. If, instead of 17, the number had been .17 in the above example, the logarithm of .17 would have been $\bar{1}$.23045, and the sum of the logarithms would have been $\bar{2}$.30023; the product would then have been .019963.

649. It can now be shown why, as stated in Art. **626**, all numbers with figures in the same order have the same mantissa without regard to the decimal point. Thus, suppose it were known that log 2.06 = .31387. Then, log 20.6 = log (2.06 × 10) = log 2.06 + log 10 = .31387 + 1 = 1.31387. And so it might be proved with the decimal point in any other position.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

650. Find the products of the following by the use of logarithms:

1. 100, 32, and 31.64. Ans. 101,250.
2. 23.1, 59.64, and 7.863. Ans. 10,833.
3. .00354, .275, and .0198. Ans. .000019275.
4. 2.763, 59.87, .264, and .001702. Ans. .074328.

DIVISION BY LOGARITHMS.

651. As before, let X and Y represent two numbers, whose logarithms are x and y. To find the logarithm of their quotient we have, from the definition of a logarithm,

$$10^x = X, \qquad (1)$$

and

$$10^y = Y. \qquad (2)$$

Dividing (1) by (2), $10^{x-y} = \frac{X}{Y}$ (Art. **438**), or, by the definition of a logarithm, $x - y = \log \frac{X}{Y}$. But $\frac{X}{Y}$ is the quotient

of $X \div Y$, and $x - y$ is the difference of their logarithms, from which it follows that *the difference between the logarithms of two numbers is equal to the logarithm of their quotient.* Hence,

652. To divide one number by another by means of logarithms:

Rule.—*Subtract the logarithm of the divisor from the logarithm of the dividend, and the result will be the logarithm of the quotient.*

EXAMPLE.—Divide 6,784.2 by 27.42.

SOLUTION.—

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Log } 6{,}784.2 &= 3.83150 \\ \text{Log } \ \ 27.42 &= 1.43807 \\ \hline \textit{difference} &= \overline{2}.39343 = \log (6{,}784.2 \div 27.42). \end{aligned}$$

Number corresponding to $\overline{2}.39343 = 247.42$. Hence, $6{,}784.2 \div 27.42 = 247.42$. Ans.

653. When subtracting logarithms, their *algebraic* difference is to be found. The operation may sometimes be confusing, because the mantissa is always positive, and the characteristic may be either positive or negative. *When the logarithm to be subtracted is greater than the logarithm from which it is to be taken, or when negative characteristics appear, subtract the mantissa first, and then the characteristic, by changing its sign and adding.* (Art. **399.**)

EXAMPLE.—Divide 274.2 by 6,784.2.

SOLUTION.—

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Log } \ \ 274.2 &= 2.43807 \\ \text{Log } 6{,}784.2 &= 3.83150 \\ \hline & \ \ \overline{2}.60657. \end{aligned}$$

First subtracting the mantissa .83150 gives .60657 for the mantissa of the quotient. In subtracting, 1 had to be taken from the characteristic of the minuend leaving a characteristic of 1. Subtract the characteristic 3 from this, by changing its sign and adding $1 - 3 = \overline{2}$, the characteristic of the quotient. Number corresponding to $\overline{2}.60657 = .040418$. Hence, $274.2 \div 6{,}784.2 = .040418$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Divide .067842 by .002742.

SOLUTION.—

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Log } .067842 &= \overline{2}.83150 \\ \text{Log } .002742 &= \overline{3}.43807 \\ \hline \textit{difference} &= 1.39343. \end{aligned}$$

Subtracting, $.83150 - .43807 = .39343$ and $-2 + 3 = 1$. Number corresponding to $1.39343 = 24.742$. Hence, $.067842 \div .002742 = 24.742$. Ans.

654. The only case that need cause trouble in subtracting is where the logarithm of the minuend has a negative characteristic, or none at all, and a mantissa less than the mantissa of the subtrahend. For example, let it be required to subtract the logarithm 3.74036 from the logarithm $\bar{3}.55145$. The logarithm $\bar{3}.55145$ is equivalent to $-3 + .55145$. Now, if we add both $+1$ and -1 to this logarithm, it will not change its value. Hence, $\bar{3}.55145 = -3 - 1 + 1 + .55145 = \bar{4} + 1.55145$. Therefore, $\bar{3}.55145 - 3.74036 =$

$$\begin{array}{r} \bar{4} + 1.55145 \\ 3 + \ .74036 \\ \hline \textit{difference} = \bar{7} + \ .81109 = \bar{7}.81109. \end{array}$$

Had the characteristic of the above logarithm been 0 instead of $\bar{3}$, the process would have been exactly the same. Thus, $.55145 = \bar{1} + 1.55145$; hence,

$$\begin{array}{r} \bar{1} + 1.55145 \\ 3 + \ .74036 \\ \hline \textit{difference} = \bar{4} + \ .81109 = \bar{4}.81109. \end{array}$$

EXAMPLE.—Divide .02742 by 67.842.

SOLUTION.—

$$\begin{array}{rl} \text{Log } .02742 = \bar{2}.43807 = & \bar{3} + 1.43807 \\ \text{Log } 67.842 = 1.83150 = & 1 + \ .83150 \\ \hline \textit{difference} = & \bar{4} + \ .60657 = \bar{4}.60657. \end{array}$$

Number corresponding to $\bar{4}.60657 = .00040417$. Hence, $.02742 \div 67.842 = .00040417$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—What is the reciprocal of 3.1416?

SOLUTION.—Reciprocal of $3.1416 = \frac{1}{3.1416}$, and $\log \frac{1}{3.1416} = \log 1 - \log 3.1416 = 0 - .49715$. Since $0 = -1 + 1$,

$$\begin{array}{r} \bar{1} + 1.00000 \\ .49715 \\ \hline \textit{difference} = \bar{1} + \ .50285 = \bar{1}.50285. \end{array}$$

Number whose logarithm is $\bar{1}.50285 = .31831$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

655. Find the quotients of the following by the use of logarithms:

1.	564.35 ÷ 34.96.	Ans. 16.143.
2.	9.643 ÷ 200.04.	Ans. .048204.
3.	.16071 ÷ 76.8.	Ans. .0020926.
4.	.00624 ÷ 3.096.	Ans. .0020155.
5.	.000119 ÷ .0719.	Ans. .0016551.
6.	1.19 ÷ 719.	Ans. .0016551.
7.	1 ÷ 1,728.	Ans. .0005787.

INVOLUTION BY LOGARITHMS.

656. If X represents a number whose logarithm is x, we have, from the definition of a logarithm,

$$10^x = X.$$

Raising both numbers to some power, as the nth, the equation becomes, by Art. **511**,

$$10^{xn} = X^n.$$

But X^n is the required power of X, and xn is its logarithm, from which it follows that the logarithm of a number multiplied by the exponent of the power to which it is raised is equal to the logarithm of the power. Hence,

657. To raise a number to any power by the use of logarithms:

Rule.—*Multiply the logarithm of the number by the exponent which denotes the power to which the number is to be raised, and the result will be the logarithm of the required power.*

EXAMPLE.—What is the square of (*a*) 7.92? (*b*) the cube of 94.7? (*c*) the 1.6 power of 512, that is, $512^{1.6}$?

SOLUTION.—(*a*) Log 7.92 = .89873; the exponent of the power is 2. Hence, .89873 × 2 = 1.79746 = log 7.92^2. Number corresponding to 1.79746 = 62.727. Hence, $7.92^2 = 62.727$, nearly. Ans.

(*b*) Log 94.7 = 1.97635; 1.97635 × 3 = 5.92905 = log 94.7^3. Number corresponding to 5.92905 = 849,280. Hence, $94.7^3 = 849{,}280$, nearly. Ans.

(*c*) Log $512^{1.6}$ = 1.6 × log 512 = 1.6 × 2.70927 = 4.334832, or 4.33483 (when using five-place logarithms) = log 21,619. Hence, $512^{1.6} = 21{,}619$, nearly. Ans.

658. If the number is wholly decimal, so that the characteristic is negative, *multiply the two parts of the logarithm separately by the exponent of the number. If, after multiplying the mantissa, the product has a characteristic, add it, algebraically, to the negative characteristic, multiplied by the exponent, and the result will be the negative characteristic of the required power.*

EXAMPLE.—Raise .0751 to the fourth power.

SOLUTION.—Log $.0751^4 = 4 \times \log .0751 = 4 \times \bar{2}.87564$. Multiplying the parts separately, $4 \times \bar{2} = \bar{8}$ and $4 \times .87564 = 3.50256$. Adding the 3 and $\bar{8}$, $3 + (-8) = -5$; therefore, log $.0751^4 = \bar{5}.50256$. Number corresponding to this $= .00003181$. Hence, $.0751^4 = .00003181$. Ans.

659. A decimal may be raised to a power whose exponent contains a decimal as follows:

EXAMPLE.—Raise .8 to the 1.21 power.

SOLUTION.—Log $.8^{1.21} = 1.21 \times \bar{1}.90309$. There are several ways of performing the multiplication.

First Method.—Adding the characteristic and mantissa algebraically, the result is $-.09691$. Multiplying this by 1.21 gives $-.1172611$, or $-.11726$, when using 5-place logarithms. To obtain a positive mantissa, add $+1$ and -1; whence, log $.8^{1.21} = -1 + 1 - .11726 = \bar{1}.88274$.

Second Method.—Multiplying the characteristic and mantissa separately gives $-1.21 + 1.09274$. Adding characteristic and mantissa algebraically gives $-.11726$; then, adding $+1$ and -1, log $.8^{1.21} = \bar{1}.88274$.

Third Method.—Multiplying the characteristic and mantissa separately gives $-1.21 + 1.09274$. Adding the decimal part of the characteristic to the mantissa gives $-1 + (-.21 + 1.09274) = \bar{1}.88274 = \log .8^{1.21}$. The number corresponding to the logarithm $\bar{1}.88274 = .76338$. Ans.

Any one of the above three methods may be used, but we recommend the first or the third. The third is the most elegant, and saves figures, but requires the exercise of more caution than the first method does. Below will be found the entire work of multiplication for both $.8^{1.21}$ and $.8^{.21}$.

```
  1̄.90309                    1̄.90309
     1.21                        .21
  -------                    -------
    90309                      90309
  180618                     180618
  90309                    -----------
  -------                  +1.1896489
  1.0927389              -1-.21
-1.21                      -----------
  -------                  1̄.9796489, or 1̄.97965.
  1̄.8827389, or 1̄.88274.
```

In the second case, the negative decimal obtained by multiplying -1 and .21 was greater than the positive decimal obtained by multiplying .90309 and .21; hence, $+1$ and -1 were added as shown.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

660. Find the values of the following by logarithms:

1.	$1{,}728^{2}$.	Ans. 2,985,900.
2.	$2.49^{1.34}$.	Ans. 3.0995.
3.	$32.16^{.43}$.	Ans. 4.2961.
4.	$.64^{4}$.	Ans. .16777.
5.	$.64^{.4}$.	Ans. .8365.
6.	$.0241^{2.8}$.	Ans. .000029489.

EVOLUTION BY LOGARITHMS.

661. If X represents a number whose logarithm is x, we have, from the definition of a logarithm,

$$10^{x} = X.$$

Extracting some root of both members, as the nth, the equation becomes, by Art. **521**,

$$10^{\frac{x}{n}} = \sqrt[n]{X}.$$

But $\sqrt[n]{X}$ is the required root of X, and $\frac{x}{n}$ is its logarithm, from which it follows that the logarithm of a number, divided by the index of the root to be extracted, is equal to the logarithm of the root. Hence,

662. To extract any root of a number by means of logarithms:

Rule.—*Divide the logarithm of the number by the index of the root; the result will be the logarithm of the root.*

EXAMPLE.—Extract (*a*) the square root of 77,851; (*b*) the cube root of 698,970; (*c*) the 2.4 root of 8,964,300.

SOLUTION.—(*a*) Log 77,851 = 4.89127; the index of the root is 2; hence, log $\sqrt{77{,}851} = 4.89127 \div 2 = 2.44564$; number corresponding to this = 279.02. Hence, $\sqrt{77{,}851} = 279.02$, nearly. Ans.

(*b*) Log $\sqrt[3]{698{,}970} = 5.84446 \div 3 = 1.94815 =$ log 88.746; or, $\sqrt[3]{698{,}970}$ = 88.747, nearly. Ans.

(*c*) $\text{Log}\sqrt[2.4]{8,964,300} = 6.95251 \div 2.4 = 2.89688 = \log 788.64$; or $\sqrt[2.4]{8,964,300} = 788.64$, nearly. Ans.

663. If it is required to extract a root of a number wholly decimal, and the negative characteristic will not exactly contain the index of the root, without a remainder, proceed as follows:

Separate the two parts of the logarithm; add as many units (or parts of a unit) to the negative characteristic as will make it exactly contain the index of the root. Add the same number to the mantissa, and divide both parts by the index. The result will be the characteristic and mantissa of the root.

EXAMPLE.—Extract the cube root of .0003181.

SOLUTION.—$\text{Log}\sqrt[3]{.0003181} = \dfrac{\log .0003181}{3} = \dfrac{\overline{4}.50256}{3}$.

$$(\overline{4} + \overline{2} = \overline{6}) + (2 + .50256 = 2.50256).$$

$$(\overline{6} \div 3 = \overline{2}) + (2.50256 \div 3 = .83419; \text{ or,}$$

$$\log \sqrt[3]{.0003181} = \overline{2}.83419 = \log .068263.$$

Hence, $\sqrt[3]{.0003181} = .068263$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Find the value of $\sqrt[1.41]{.0003181}$.

SOLUTION.—$\text{Log}\sqrt[1.41]{.0003181} = \dfrac{\log .0003181}{1.41} = \dfrac{\overline{4}.50256}{1.41}$.

If $-.23$ be added to the characteristic, it will contain 1.41 exactly 3 times. Hence,

$$[-4 + (-.23) = -4.23] + [.23 + .50256 = .73256].$$

$$(-4.23 \div 1.41 = \overline{3}) + (.73256 \div 1.41 = .51955); \text{ or,}$$

$$\log \sqrt[1.41]{.0003181} = \overline{3}.51955 = \log .0033079.$$

Hence, $\sqrt[1.41]{.0003181} = .0033079$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

664. Find the values of the following by logarithms:

1.	$\sqrt[4]{906.8}$.	Ans. 5.4876.
2.	$\sqrt[3]{11}$.	Ans. 1.6154.
3.	$.0497^{\frac{1}{2}}$.	Ans. .36766.
4.	$.128^{\frac{3}{4}}$.	Ans. .7099.
5.	$\sqrt[2.5]{.0227}$.	Ans. .21999.
6.	$\sqrt[3]{.756}$.	Ans. .62738.

665. EXAMPLE.—Solve this expression by logarithms:

$$\frac{497 \times .0181 \times 762}{3{,}300 \times .6517} = ?$$

SOLUTION.—

Log 497 = 2.69636
Log .0181 = $\overline{2}$.25768
Log 762 = 2.88195
Log product = $\overline{3}$.83599

Log 3,300 = 3.51851
Log .6517 = $\overline{1}$.81405
Log product = $\overline{3}$.33256

$$3.83599 - 3.33256 = .50343 = \log 3.1874.$$

Hence, $$\frac{497 \times .0181 \times 762}{3{,}300 \times .6517} = 3.1874. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—Solve, $\sqrt[3]{\dfrac{504{,}203 \times 507}{1.75 \times 71.4 \times 87}}$ by logarithms

SOLUTION.—

Log 504,203 = 5.70260
Log 507 = 2.70501
Log product = $\overline{8}$.40761

Log 1.75 = .24304
Log 71.4 = 1.85370
Log 87 = 1.93952
Log product = $\overline{4}$.03626

$$\frac{8.40761 - 4.03626}{3} = 1.45712 = \log 28.65.$$

Hence, $$\sqrt[3]{\frac{504{,}203 \times 507}{1.75 \times 71.4 \times 87}} = 28.65. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

666. Logarithms can often be applied to the solution of equations.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the equation $2.43x^5 = \sqrt[5]{.0648}$.

SOLUTION.— $$2.43x^5 = \sqrt[5]{.0648}.$$

Dividing by 2.43, $$x^5 = \frac{\sqrt[5]{.0648}}{2.43}.$$

Taking the logarithm of both numbers,

$$5 \times \log x = \frac{\log\ 0648}{6} - \log\ 2.43;$$

or, $$5 \log x = \frac{\overline{2}.81158}{6} - .38561.$$

$$= \overline{1}.80193 - .38561.$$

$$= \overline{1}.41632.$$

Dividing by 5, $\log x = \overline{1}.88326$;

whence, $x = .7643$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

667. Find the values of the following:

1. $\dfrac{89 \times 753 \times .0097}{36{,}709 \times .08497}$. Ans. .20840.

2. $\sqrt[3]{\dfrac{7.932 \times .00657 \times .80464}{.03274 \times .6428}}$. Ans. 12.583.

3. $\sqrt[7]{\dfrac{.03271^2 \times 53.429 \times .77542^3}{32.769 \times .000371^4}}$. Ans. 33.035.

Find the value of x in the following:

4. $5x^7 = \dfrac{129.4 \times .71}{30}$. Ans. $x = .93237$.

5. $38x^{.48} = \dfrac{129.4 \times .71^2}{\sqrt{30}}$ Ans. $x = .063133$

GEOMETRY AND TRIGONOMETRY.

GEOMETRY.

1. Geometry is that branch of mathematics which treats of the properties of lines, angles, surfaces, and volumes.

LINES AND ANGLES.

2. A **point** indicates position only. It has neither length, breadth, nor thickness.

3. A **line** has only one dimension: length.

4. A **straight line,** Fig. 1, is one that does not change its direction throughout its whole length. A straight line is also frequently called a **right line.**

FIG. 1.

5. A **curved line,** Fig. 2, changes its direction at every point.

FIG. 2.

6. A **broken line,** Fig. 3, is one made up wholly of straight lines lying in different directions.

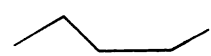

FIG. 3.

7. Parallel lines, Fig. 4, are those which are equally distant from each other throughout their whole length, both lines being considered indefinite in extent. When every point of a line is the same distance from another line (or surface), it is said to be *parallel to the line* (or surface).

FIG. 4.

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8. A line is **perpendicular** to another when it meets that line so as not to incline towards it on either side, Fig. 5.

FIG. 5.

9. A **horizontal line** is a line parallel to the horizon, or water level, Fig. 6.

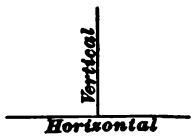


FIG. 6.

10. A **vertical line,** Fig. 6, is a line perpendicular to a horizontal line; consequently, it has the direction of a plumb-line.

11. When two lines cross or cut each other, as in Fig. 7, they are said to **intersect,** and the point at which they intersect is called the **point of intersection,** as at *A*.

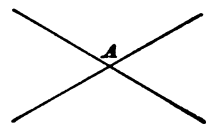


FIG. 7.

12. An **angle,** Fig. 8, is the opening between two lines that intersect or meet; the point of meeting is called the **vertex** of the angle.

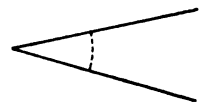


FIG. 8.

13. In order to distinguish one line from another, two of its points are given if it is a straight line, and as many more as are considered necessary if it is a broken or curved line. Thus, in Fig. 9, the line *A B* would mean the straight line included between the points *A* and *B*. Similarly, the straight line between *C* and *D* would be called the line *C D*.

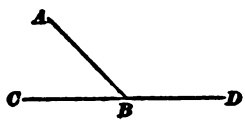


FIG. 9.

The broken line made up of the lines *A B* and *B D* would be called the broken line *A B D* or *D B A*, according to the point started from. The line *C D* may be regarded as a single line or as made up of two lines *C B* and *B D*. *B D* may be regarded as *C B* extended, in which case it would be called *C B produced to D*, or simply *C B* **produced.** Similarly, *C B* is *D B* produced. One line, however, cannot be

said to be another line produced, unless it is an extension of the line in a constant direction; i. e., $A\ B$ cannot be referred to as $C\ B$ produced or as $D\ B$ produced.

14. To distinguish angles, name a point on each line, and the point of their intersection, or vertex of the angle. Thus, in Fig. 9, the angle formed by the lines $A\ B$ and $C\ B$ is called the angle $A\ B\ C$ or the angle $C\ B\ A$, the letter at the vertex being placed between the other two. The angle formed by the lines $A\ B$ and $B\ D$ is called the angle $A\ B\ D$ or the angle $D\ B\ A$.

When an angle stands alone so that it cannot be mistaken for any other angle, only the vertex letter need be given; thus, the angle E, Fig. 20, the angle B, Fig. 21, etc.

15. If one straight line meets another straight line at a point between its ends (see Figs. 9 and 10), two angles $A\ B\ C$ and $A\ B\ D$ are formed, which are called **adjacent angles.**

16. When adjacent angles are equal, as $A\ B\ C$ and $A\ B\ D$, Fig. 10, they are called **right angles.**

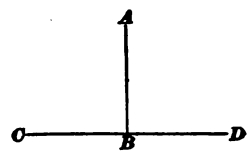


FIG. 10.

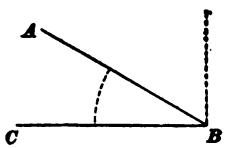


FIG. 11.

17. An **acute angle** is less than a right angle. $A\ B\ C$, Fig. 11, is an acute angle.

18. An **obtuse angle** is greater than a right angle. $A\ B\ D$, Fig. 12, is an obtuse angle.

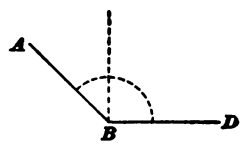


FIG. 12.

19. When two straight lines intersect they form four angles about the point of intersection. Thus, in Fig. 13, the lines $A\ B$ and $C\ D$, intersecting at the point O, form four angles $B\ O\ D$, $D\ O\ A$, $A\ O\ C$, and $C\ O\ B$ about the point O. The angles that lie on the *same* side of one straight line, as $D\ O\ B$ and $D\ O\ A$, are **adjacent angles.** The angles that lie *opposite* each other are called **opposite angles.** Thus, $A\ O\ C$ and $D\ O\ B$, also $D\ O\ A$ and $B\ O\ C$, are opposite angles.

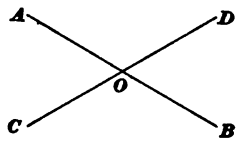


FIG. 13.

20. When one straight line intersects another straight line, as in Fig. 13, the opposite angles are equal. Thus, $D\ O\ B = A\ O\ C$, and $D\ O\ A = B\ O\ C$.

21. When one straight line meets another straight line at a point between its ends, the sum of the two adjacent angles $A\ B\ D$ and $A\ B\ C$, Fig. 14, equals two right angles.

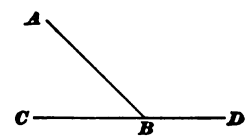


FIG. 14.

22. If a number of straight lines on the same side of a given straight line meet at the same point, the sum of all the angles formed is equal to two right angles. Thus, in Fig. 15, $C\ O\ B + D\ O\ C + E\ O\ D + F\ O\ E + A\ O\ F =$ two right angles.

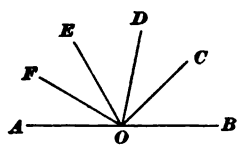


FIG. 15.

23. If a straight line intersects another straight line, so that the adjacent angles are equal, the lines are said to be *perpendicular to each other.* In such a case, four right angles are formed about the point of intersection. Thus, in Fig. 16, $B\ O\ C = C\ O\ A$; hence, $B\ O\ C$, $C\ O\ A$, $A\ O\ D$, and $D\ O\ B$ are right angles. From this it is seen that *four right angles* are all that can be formed about a given point.

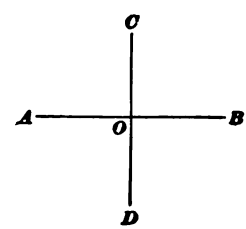


FIG. 16.

24. Through a given point any number of straight lines may be drawn; and the sum of all the angles formed about the point of intersection equals four right angles. Thus, in Fig. 17, $HOF + FOC + COA + AOG + GOE + EOD + DOB + BOH =$ four right angles.

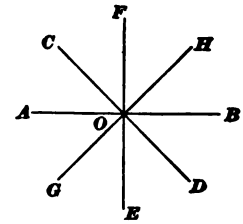


FIG. 17.

EXAMPLE.—In a flywheel with 12 arms, what part of a right angle is included between the center lines of any two adjacent arms, the arms being spaced equally?

SOLUTION.—Since there are 12 arms, there are 12 angles. The sum of all the angles equals four right angles. Hence, one angle equals $\frac{1}{12}$ of 4 right angles, or $\frac{1}{12} \times 4 = \frac{4}{12} = \frac{1}{3}$ of 1 right angle. Ans.

25. A perpendicular drawn from a point over or under a given straight line is the shortest distance from the point to the line, or to the line produced. Thus, if A, Fig. 18, is the given point and CD the given line, then the perpendicular AB is the shortest distance from A to CD.

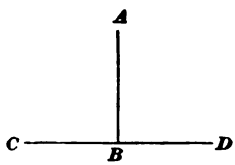


FIG. 18.

26. An angle is said to be the **complement** of another when the sum of the two angles is *one* right angle. In Fig. 17, if FE is perpendicular to AB, FOH is the complement of BOH, and BOH is the complement of FOH. When referring to both angles, they are said to be **complementary.** Thus, BOH and FOH are complementary angles.

27. When the sum of two angles is equal to *two* right angles, the angles are said to be **supplementary,** and each is the **supplement** of the other. In Fig. 14, ABC is the supplement of ABD, and ABD is the supplement of ABC. From this definition, it follows that *adjacent angles are supplementary;* also, that if one side of an angle, as BD, Fig. 14, be produced through the vertex, the angle between the side produced and the other side, i. e., the angle CBA, is the supplement of the original angle DBA.

28. If two angles have their sides parallel and both the corresponding sides lie in the same or in opposite directions, they are equal. Thus, if the side $A\,B$, Fig. 19, is parallel to the side $D\,E$, and if the side $B\,C$ is parallel to the side $E\,F$, then the angle $E =$ the angle B. But if one of the sides of one angle lies in the same direction and

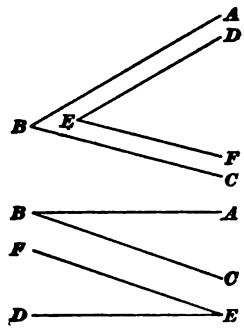


FIG. 19.

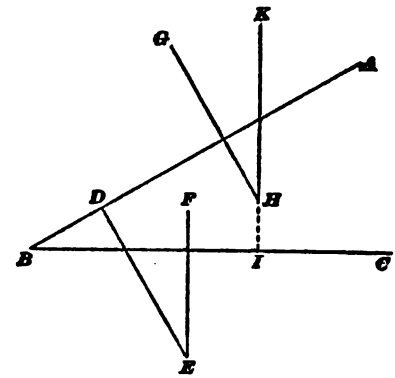


FIG. 20.

the other in the opposite direction to the corresponding sides of the other angle, the angles are supplementary. Thus, in Fig. 20, $G\,H$ is parallel to and lies in the same direction as $D\,E$, and $H\,I$ is parallel to but lies in the opposite direction to $E\,F$; hence, angle $G\,H\,I$ is the supplement of $D\,E\,F$.

29. If two sides of an angle are perpendicular to two sides of another angle, the two angles are equal or supplementary. Thus, if $D\,E$ and $G\,H$, Fig. 20, are perpendicular to $B\,A$, and $E\,F$ and $H\,K$ are perpendicular to $B\,C$, then will angle $E =$ angle $B =$ angle H; also $G\,H\,I$ is the supplement of $A\,B\,C$.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. In a pulley with five arms, what part of a right angle is included between the center lines of any two arms? Ans. $\frac{1}{5}$ of a right angle.

2. If one straight line meets another straight line so as to form an angle equal to $1\frac{3}{5}$ right angles, what part of a right angle does its adjacent angle equal? Ans. $\frac{2}{5}$ of a right angle.

3. If a number of straight lines meet a given straight line at a given point, all being on the same side of the given line, so as to form six equal angles, what part of a right angle is contained in each angle?
Ans. $\frac{1}{6}$ of a right angle.

PLANE FIGURES.

30. A **surface** has only two dimensions: *length* and *breadth*. A **plane surface,** usually called a **plane,** is a flat surface. If a straightedge be laid on a plane surface, every point along the edge of the straightedge will touch the surface, no matter in what direction it is laid.

31. A **plane figure** is any part of a plane surface bounded by straight or curved lines.

32. When a plane figure is bounded by **straight** lines only, it is called a **polygon.** The bounding lines are called the **sides,** and the broken line that bounds it (or the whole distance around it) is called the **perimeter** of the polygon.

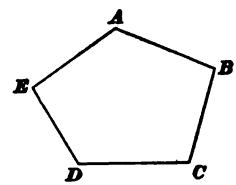


FIG. 21.

The angles formed by the sides are called the angles of the polygon. Thus, $ABCDE$, Fig. 21, is a polygon. AB, BC, etc. are the sides; EAB, ABC, etc. are the angles; and the broken line $ABCDEA$ is the perimeter.

33. Polygons are classified according to the number of their sides: One of three sides is called a **triangle;** one of four sides, a **quadrilateral;** one of five sides, a **pentagon;** one of six sides, a **hexagon;** one of seven sides, a **heptagon;** one of eight sides, an **octagon;** one of ten sides, a **decagon;** one of twelve sides, a **dodecagon;** etc.

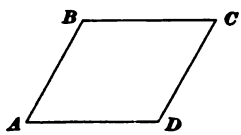


FIG. 22.

34. Equilateral polygons are those in which the sides are all equal. Thus, in Fig. 22, $AB = BC = CD = DA$; hence, $ABCD$ is an equilateral polygon.

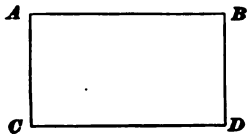


FIG. 23.

35. An **equiangular polygon** is one in which all the angles are equal. Thus, in Fig. 23, angle A = angle B = angle D = angle C; hence, $A\,B\,D\,C$ is an equiangular polygon.

36. A **regular polygon** is one in which all the sides and all the angles are equal. Thus, in Fig. 24, $A\,B = B\,D = D\,C = C\,A$, and angle A = angle B = angle D = angle C; hence, $A\,B\,D\,C$ is a regular polygon.

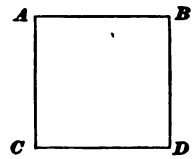
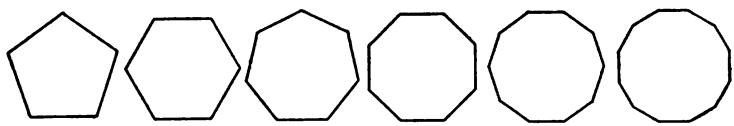


FIG. 24.

37. Some regular polygons are shown in Fig. 25.



Pentagon Hexagon Heptagon Octagon Decagon Dodecagon

FIG. 25.

38. The sum of all the interior angles of any polygon equals two right angles, multiplied by a number which is two less than the number of sides of the polygon. Thus, $A\,B\,C\,D\,E\,F$, Fig. 26, is a polygon of six sides (hexagon), and the sum of all the interior angles $A + B + C + D + E + F = 2$ right angles $\times\ 4\ (= 6 - 2)$, or 8 right angles.

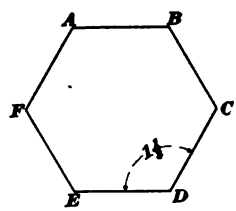


FIG. 26.

EXAMPLE.—If the above figure is a regular hexagon (has equal sides and equal angles), how many right angles are there in each interior angle?

SOLUTION.— $6 - 2 = 4$. Two right angles $\times\ 4 = 8$ right angles = the total number of right angles in the polygon; and as there are 6 equal angles, we have $8 \div 6 = 1\frac{1}{3}$ right angles = the number of right angles in each interior angle. Ans.

THE TRIANGLE.

39. Triangles are named according to their sides as *isosceles*, *equilateral*, and *scalene* triangles, and according to their angles as *right-angled* and *oblique-angled* triangles.

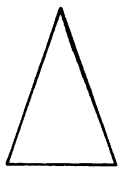


FIG. 27.

40. An **isosceles** triangle, Fig. 27, is one having two of its sides equal.

41. When the three sides are equal, as in Fig. 28, it is called an **equilateral** triangle. An equilateral triangle is also isosceles.

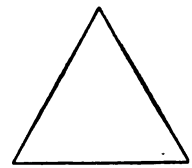


FIG. 28.

FIG. 29.

42. A **scalene** triangle, Fig. 29, is one having no two of its sides equal.

43. A **right-angled** triangle, Fig. 30, is any triangle having one right angle. The side opposite the right angle is called the **hypotenuse.** For brevity, a right-angled triangle is now termed a **right triangle.**

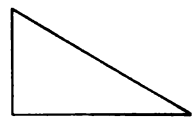


FIG. 30.

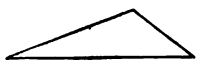


FIG. 31.

44. An **oblique** triangle, Fig. 31, is one that has no right angle.

45. The **base** of any triangle is the side upon which the triangle is supposed to stand; any side may be considered to be the base. In Figs. 32, 33, and 34, $A\ C$ is the base.

46. The **altitude** of any triangle is a line drawn from the vertex of the angle opposite the base perpendicular to the base or to the base produced. Thus, in Figs. 32 and 33, $B\ D$ is the *altitude* of the triangles $A\ B\ C$.

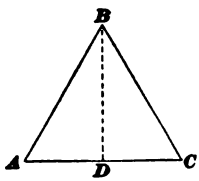


FIG. 32.

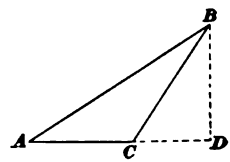


FIG. 33.

47. In an isosceles triangle, the angles opposite the equal sides are equal. Thus, in Fig. 34, $AB = BC$; hence, angle C = angle A. Therefore, if two angles of any triangle are equal, the triangle is isosceles.

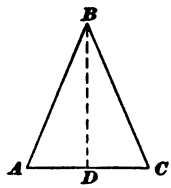


FIG. 34.

In any isosceles triangle, if a perpendicular be drawn from the vertex opposite the unequal side to that side, it bisects (cuts in halves) the side. Thus, AC, Fig. 34, is the unequal side in the isosceles triangle ABC; hence, the perpendicular BD from the vertex opposite AC bisects AC, or $AD = DC$.

48. In any triangle, the sum of the three angles equals two right angles. Thus, in Fig. 35, the sum of the angles at A, B, and C = two right angles; that is, $A + B + C$ = two right angles. Hence, if any two angles of a triangle are given, the third may be found by subtracting the sum of the two from two right angles. Suppose that $A + B = 1\frac{7}{10}$ right angles; then, C must equal $2 - 1\frac{7}{10} = \frac{3}{10}$ of a right angle.

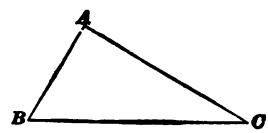


FIG. 35.

49. In any *right* triangle there can be but one right angle, and since the sum of all the angles equals two right angles, it is evident that the sum of the two acute angles must equal one right angle. Therefore, if in any right triangle one acute angle is known, the other can be found by subtracting the known angle from a right angle. Thus, in Fig. 36, ABC is a right triangle, right-angled at C. Then, the angles $A + B$ = one right angle. If $A = \frac{3}{7}$ of a right angle, $B = 1 - \frac{3}{7} = \frac{4}{7}$ of a right angle. The two acute angles of a right triangle are therefore complementary.

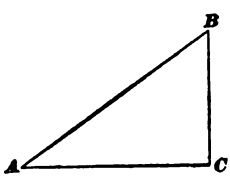


FIG. 36.

50. In any right triangle, the square described upon the hypotenuse is equal to the sum of the squares described upon the other two sides. If ABC, Fig. 37, is a right

triangle, right-angled at B, then the square described upon the hypotenuse $A\,C$ is equal to the sum of the squares described upon the sides $A\,B$ and $B\,C$; consequently, if the lengths of the sides $A\,B$ and $B\,C$ are known, the length of the hypotenuse can be found by adding the squares of the lengths of the sides $A\,B$ and $B\,C$ and then extracting the square root of the sum.

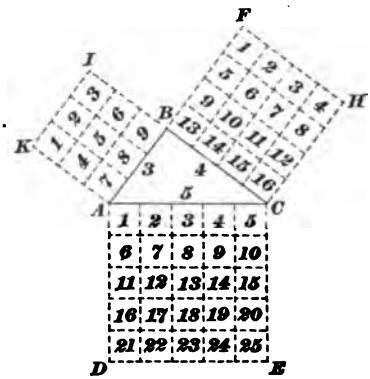


FIG. 37.

EXAMPLE.—If $A\,B = 3$ inches and $B\,C = 4$ inches, what is the length of the hypotenuse $A\,C$?

SOLUTION.— $3^2 = 9$; $4^2 = 16$.

Adding, $9 + 16 = 25$.

$\sqrt{25} = 5$.

Therefore, $A\,C = 5$ in. Ans.

51. If the hypotenuse and one side are given, the other side can be found by subtracting the square of the given side from the square of the hypotenuse, and then extracting the square root of the remainder.

EXAMPLE 1.—The side given is 3 inches, the hypotenuse is 5 inches; what is the length of the other side?

SOLUTION.— $3^2 = 9$; $5^2 = 25$. $25 - 9 = 16$, and $\sqrt{16} = 4$ in. Ans.

EXAMPLE 2.—If, from a church steeple which is 150 feet high a rope is to be attached at the top and to a stake in the ground 85 feet from its foot (the ground being supposed to be level), what must be the length of the rope?

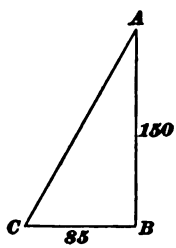


FIG. 38.

SOLUTION.—In Fig. 38, $A\,B$ represents the steeple, 150 feet high; C, a stake 85 feet from the foot of the steeple; and $A\,C$, the rope. Here we have a right triangle, right-angled at B, and $A\,C$ is the hypotenuse.

The square of $A\,C = 85^2 + 150^2 = 7{,}225 + 22{,}500 = 29{,}725$.

Therefore, $A\,C = \sqrt{29{,}725} = 172.4$ ft., nearly. Ans.

52. Two triangles are **equal** when the *sides* of one are equal to the sides of the other.

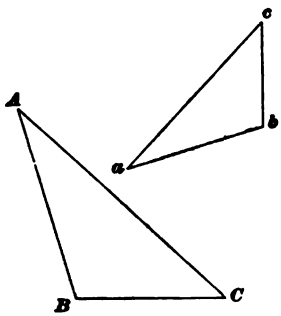


FIG. 39.

53. Two triangles are **similar** when the *angles* of one are equal to the angles of the other. *The corresponding sides of similar triangles are proportional.*

For example, in the triangles ABC and abc, Fig. 39, side ac is perpendicular to AC, side ab is perpendicular to AB, and side bc is perpendicular to BC. Hence, angle A = angle a, since the sides of one are perpendicular to the sides of the other. In like manner, angle B = angle b, and angle C = angle c. The two triangles are therefore similar and their corresponding sides are proportional. That is, any two sides of one triangle are to each other as the two corresponding sides of the other triangle; or, one side of one triangle is to the corresponding side of the other as another side of the first triangle is to the corresponding side of the second. The following are examples of the many proportions that may be written. In this case, the corresponding sides of the two triangles are the ones that are perpendicular to each other:

$$AB : BC = ab : bc,$$
$$AB : AC = ab : ac,$$
$$BC : bc = AB : ab,$$
$$AC : ac = BC : bc, \text{ etc.}$$

EXAMPLE.—The sides of a triangle are 18 inches and 21 inches and the base is 24 inches long; what are the lengths of the sides of a similar triangle whose base is 8 inches long?

SOLUTION.—Since the sides are proportional, we have the proportions $24 : 8 = 21 : x$, and $24 : 8 = 18 : x$. From the first, $x = 7$ in., and from the second, $x = 6$ in. Ans.

54. If a straight line is drawn through two sides of a triangle parallel to the third side, it divides those sides

proportionally. Thus, in Fig. 40, let the line DE be drawn parallel to the side BC in the triangle ABC. Then,

$$AD : DB = AE : EC.$$

It is to be noticed, also, that the triangles ADE and ABC are similar and their sides are proportional. The proportion $AD : DE = AB : BC$ is a useful one.

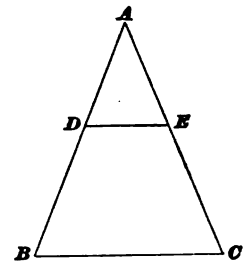


FIG. 40.

EXAMPLE 1.—In the last figure, if $AE = 14$, $AD = 12$, and $EC = 9$, what does DB equal?

SOLUTION.—From the proportion $AD : DB = AE : EC$, we have $12 : DB = 14 : 9$, whence $DB = 7\frac{5}{7}$. Ans.

EXAMPLE 2.—The base of a right triangle is 12 inches and its altitude 40 inches. How wide is the triangle 24 inches from the base?

SOLUTION.—Since the triangle is right-angled, the length of the perpendicular side equals the altitude, or 40 inches. By drawing a line parallel to the base and 24 inches above it, a second and similar triangle will be found whose corresponding side $= 40 - 24$, or 16 inches, and the length of whose base is the required width. Hence, $40 : 12 = 16 : x$, or $x = 4.8$ in. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. How many right angles are there in one of the interior angles of a regular heptagon? Ans. $1\frac{3}{7}$ right angles.

2. The angle at the vertex of an isosceles triangle equals $\frac{1}{4}$ of a right angle. What do the other angles equal? Ans. $\frac{3}{8}$ of a right angle.

3. One of the acute angles of a right triangle equals $\frac{5}{9}$ of a right angle. What is the size of the other acute angle? Ans. $\frac{4}{9}$ of a right angle.

4. If the two sides about the right angle in a right triangle are 52 and 39 feet long, how long is the hypotenuse? Ans. 65 ft.

5. A ladder 65 feet long reaches to the top of a house when its foot is 25 feet from the house. How high is the house, supposing the ground to be level? Ans. 60 ft.

6. In a triangle ABC, side $AB = 32$ feet, $BC = 34$ feet, and $AC = 48$ feet. If side AB of a similar triangle is 72 feet long, what are the lengths of the other two sides? Ans. $AC = 108$ ft.; $BC = 76.5$ ft.

7. The base of a right triangle is 24 inches and its altitude 72 inches. At what distance from the top is the triangle 16 inches wide? Ans. 48 in.

THE CIRCLE.

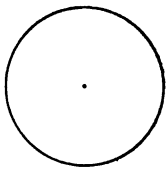


FIG. 41.

55. A **circle,** Fig. 41, is a plane figure bounded by a curved line, called the **circumference,** every point of which is equally distant from a point within, called the **center.**

56. The **diameter** of a circle $A\,B$, Fig. 42, is a straight line passing through the center and terminated at both ends by the circumference.

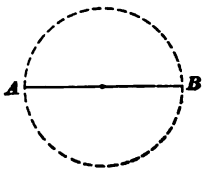


FIG. 42.

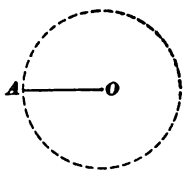


FIG. 43.

57. The **radius** of a circle, $O\,A$, Fig. 43, is a straight line drawn from the center to the circumference. It is equal in length to one-half the diameter. The plural of radius is **radii.** All radii of any circle are equal in length.

58. An **arc** of a circle, as $a\,e\,b$, Fig. 44, is any part of its circumference.

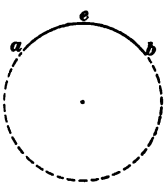


FIG. 44.

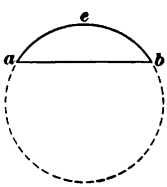


FIG. 45.

59. A **chord** is a straight line joining any two points in a circumference; or, it is a straight line joining the extremities of an arc.

Thus, in Fig. 45, $a\,b$ is the chord of the arc $a\,e\,b$.

60. A **segment** of a circle is the space included between an arc and its chord.

Thus, in Fig. 45, the portion of the circle included between the chord $a\ b$ and arc $a\ e\ b$ is a segment.

61. A **sector** of a circle is the space included between an arc and two radii drawn to the extremities of the arc.

Thus, in Fig. 46, the space included between the arc $A\ B$ and the radii $O\ A$ and $O\ B$ is a sector of the circle.

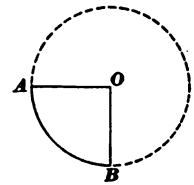


FIG. 46.

62. Two circles are equal when the radius or diameter of one equals the radius or diameter of the other.

Two arcs are equal when the radius and chord of one equal the radius and chord of the other.

63. If $A\ D\ B\ C$, Fig. 47, is a circle in which two diameters $A\ B$ and $C\ D$ are drawn at right angles to each other, then, $A\ O\ D$, $D\ O\ B$, $B\ O\ C$, and $C\ O\ A$ are right angles. The circumference is thus divided into four equal parts; each of these parts is called a **quadrant.**

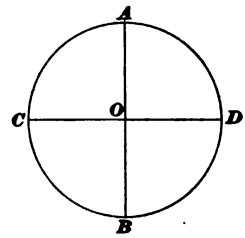


FIG. 47.

64. In geometry, angles are measured by the number of right angles, or parts of a right angle, which they contain; since in the circle, a right angle intercepts a quadrant, an angle is also measured by the number of quadrants, or parts of a quadrant, that it intercepts. The word "intercept" as here used means the arc cut off by the sides of the angle.

65. An angle at the center is measured by its intercepted arc.

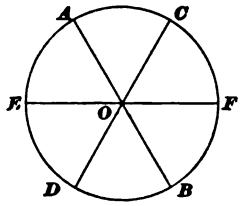


FIG. 48.

EXAMPLE.—If a circle is divided into six equal sectors, how many quadrants, or parts of a quadrant, are contained in the angle of each sector?

SOLUTION.—In Fig. 48, $A\ C\ F\ B\ D\ E$ is a circle divided into six equal sectors. The sum of all the quadrants in the circle is 4. Hence, $4 \div 6 = \frac{2}{3}$ of a quadrant in each sector. Ans.

66. An **inscribed** angle is one whose vertex lies on the circumference of a circle and whose sides are chords. It is measured by *one-half* the intercepted arc. Thus, in Fig. 49, $A\ B\ C$ is an inscribed angle and it is measured by one-half the arc $A\ D\ C$.

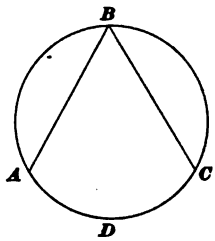


FIG. 49.

EXAMPLE.—If in the figure the arc $A\ D\ C = \frac{2}{5}$ of the circumference, what is the measure of the inscribed angle $A\ B\ C$?

SOLUTION.—Since the angle is an inscribed angle, it is measured by one-half the intercepted arc, or $\frac{2}{5} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{5}$ of the circumference. The whole circumference contains four quadrants; hence, $4 \times \frac{1}{5} = \frac{4}{5}$ of a quadrant, or $\frac{4}{5}$ of a right angle. Therefore, the measure of the angle $A\ B\ C$ is $\frac{4}{5}$ of a quadrant. Ans.

67. If a circle is divided into halves, each half is called a **semicircle,** and each half circumference is called a **semi-circumference.**

68. Any angle that is inscribed in a semicircle and intercepts a semi-circumference, as $A\ B\ C$, or $A\ D\ C$, Fig. 50, is a right angle, since it is measured by one-half a semi-circumference, that is, by a quadrant.

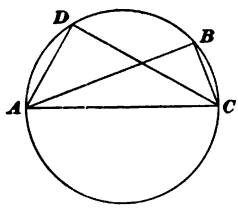


FIG. 50.

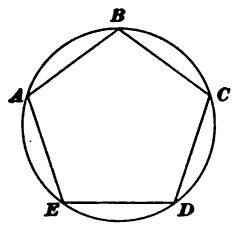


FIG. 51.

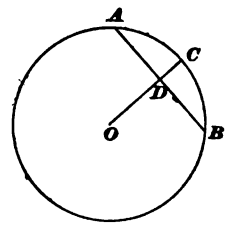


FIG. 52.

69. An **inscribed** polygon is one whose vertexes lie on the circumference of a circle, and whose sides are chords, as $A\ B\ C\ D\ E$, Fig. 51.

70. If, in any circle, a radius be drawn perpendicular to any chord, it bisects (cuts in halves) the chord. Thus, if the radius $O\ C$, Fig. 52, is perpendicular to the chord $A\ B$, $A\ D = D\ B$.

EXAMPLE.—If a regular pentagon is inscribed in a circle and a radius is drawn perpendicular to one of the sides, what are the lengths of the two parts of the side, the perimeter of the pentagon being 27 inches?

SOLUTION. — A pentagon has five sides, and since it is a regular pentagon, all the sides are of equal length; the perimeter of the pentagon, which is the distance around it, equals the sum of all the sides, or 27 inches. Therefore, the length of one side $= 27 \div 5 = 5\frac{2}{5}$ inches. Since the pentagon is an inscribed pentagon, its sides are chords, and as a radius perpendicular to a chord bisects it, we have $5\frac{2}{5} \div 2 = 2\frac{7}{10}$ inches for the length of each of the parts of the side, cut by a radius perpendicular to it. Ans.

71. If a straight line be drawn perpendicular to any chord at its middle point, it must pass through the center of the circle.

Through any three points not in the same straight line, a circumference can be drawn. Let A, B, and C, Fig. 53, be any three points. Join A and B, and B and C, by straight lines. At the middle point of $A\,B$ draw $H\,K$ perpendicular to $A\,B$; at the middle point of $B\,C$ draw $E\,F$ perpendicular to $B\,C$. These two perpendiculars intersect at O. All points on $H\,K$ are equally distant from A and B, and all points on $E\,F$ are equally distant from B and C; their intersection O is equally distant from A, B, and C. Then, with O as a center and $O\,B$ as a radius, describe a circle; it will pass through A, B, and C.

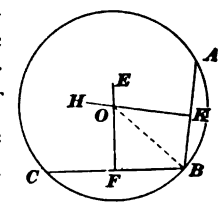


FIG. 53.

72. A **tangent** to a circle is a straight line that touches the circle at one point only; it is always perpendicular to a radius drawn to that point. Thus, in Fig. 54, $A\,B$ drawn perpendicular to the radius $O\,E$ at its extremity E is a *tangent* to the circle.

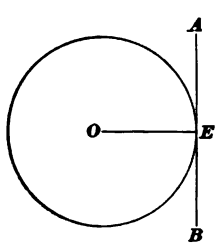


FIG. 54.

If a straight line is perpendicular to a radius at its extremity, it is tangent to the circle. Thus, in Fig. 54, if $A\,B$ is perpendicular to the radius $O\,E$ at E, $A\,B$ is tangent to the circle.

73. If two circles intersect each other, the line joining their centers bisects at right angles the line joining the two points of intersection. If the two circles, whose centers are O and P, Fig. 55, intersect at A and B, the line $O\,P$ bisects at right angles the line $A\,B$; or $A\,C = B\,C$. $A\,B$ is thus perpendicular to $O\,P$.

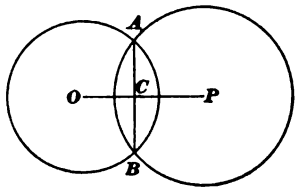


FIG. 55.

74. One circle is said to be **tangent** to another circle when they touch each other at one point only, as in Fig. 56. This point is called the **point of tangency,** or the **point of contact.**

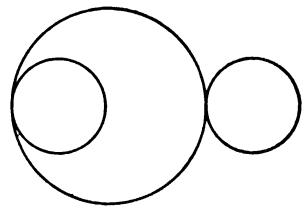


FIG. 56.

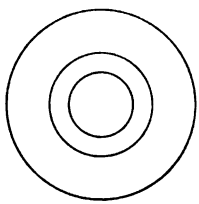


FIG. 57.

75. When two or more circles are described from the same center, as in Fig. 57, they are called **concentric** circles.

76. If, from any point on the circumference of a circle, a perpendicular be let fall upon a given diameter, this perpendicular will be a mean proportional between the two parts into which it divides the diameter.

If $A\,B$, Fig. 58, is the given diameter and C any point on the circumference, then is the perpendicular $C\,D$ a mean proportional between $A\,D$ and $D\,B$, or

$$A\,D : C\,D = C\,D : D\,B.$$

Therefore, $\overline{C\,D}^2 = A\,D \times D\,B,$

and $C\,D = \sqrt{A\,D \times D\,B}.$

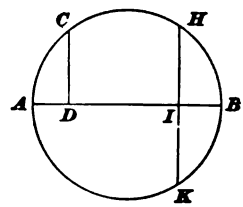


FIG. 58.

EXAMPLE 1.—If $HK = 30$ feet and $IB = 8$ feet, what is the diameter of the circle, HK being perpendicular to AB?

SOLUTION.— 30 feet $\div$ 2 = 15 feet = IH.

$$BI : IH = IH : IA, \text{ or } 8 : 15 = 15 : IA.$$

Therefore, $$IA = \frac{15^2}{8} = \frac{225}{8} = 28\tfrac{1}{8} \text{ feet,}$$

and $IA + IB = 28\frac{1}{8} + 8 = 36\frac{1}{8}$ ft. $= AB$, diameter of circle. Ans.

EXAMPLE 2.—The diameter of the circle AB is $36\frac{1}{8}$ feet and the distance BI is 8 feet; what is the length of the line HK?

SOLUTION.—As the diameter of the circle is $36\frac{1}{8}$ feet and as BI is 8 feet, IA is equal to $36\frac{1}{8} - 8 = 28\frac{1}{8}$ feet. Hence, $BI : IH = IH : IA$, or $8 : IH = IH : 28\frac{1}{8}$. Therefore, $IH = \sqrt{8 \times 28\frac{1}{8}} = 15$ feet, and as $HK = IH + IK$, or $2\,IH$, $HK = 15 \times 2 = 30$ ft. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. If a circle is divided into ten equal sectors, what part of a quadrant is contained in the angle of each sector? Ans. $\frac{2}{5}$ of a quadrant.

2. An angle inscribed in a circle intercepts one-fourth of the circumference. What is the size of the angle? Ans. $\frac{1}{2}$ of a right angle.

3. The perimeter of a regular inscribed octagon is 100 inches long. If a radius is drawn perpendicular to one of the sides, what are the lengths of the two parts of the side? Ans. $6\frac{1}{4}$ in.

4. If, in Fig. 58, the diameter $AB = 32\frac{1}{2}$ feet and the distance $IB = 8$ feet, what is the length of the chord HK? Ans. 28 ft.

5. In Fig. 58, if the distance BI is 6 inches and HK 18 inches, what is the diameter of the circle? Ans. 19.5 in.

TRIGONOMETRY.

77. Trigonometry is that branch of mathematics which treats of the solution of triangles.

Every triangle has six parts — three **sides** and three **angles.** If any three of the parts are given, one of them being a side, the other three can be found. The process of finding the unknown parts from the given parts is called the **solution** of the triangle.

78. In trigonometry, the circumference of every circle is supposed to be divided into 360 equal parts, called **degrees;**

every degree is subdivided into 60 equal parts, called **minutes**; and every minute is again divided into 60 equal parts, called **seconds.** Degrees, minutes, and seconds are denoted by the symbols °, ′, ″. Thus, the expression 37° 14′ 44″, is read 37 degrees 14 minutes 44 seconds.

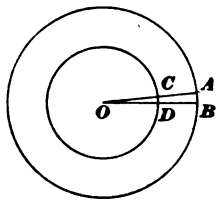


FIG. 59.

Since one degree is $\frac{1}{360}$ of any circumference, it follows that the length of an arc of one degree will be different in circles of different diameters, but the proportion of the length of an arc of one degree to the whole circumference will always be the same, viz., $\frac{1}{360}$ of the circumference.

Hence, in two given circles the length of an arc of 1° will be proportional to the two radii. Thus, if $A\,O\,B$, Fig. 59, is an angle of 1° on the larger circle, it is also 1° on the smaller concentric circle, and the length of the arc $A\,B$ is to the length of the arc $C\,D$ as the radius $O\,B$ is to the radius $O\,D$; or, arc $A\,B$: arc $C\,D = O\,B : O\,D$.

EXAMPLE.—If the arc $C\,D = 2$ inches, radius $O\,D = 5$ inches, and radius $O\,B = 9$ inches, what is the length of the arc $A\,B$?

SOLUTION.— $A\,B : 2 = 9 : 5$, or $A\,B = \frac{9 \times 2}{5} = 3\frac{3}{5}$ in. Ans.

79. In trigonometry, the arcs of circles are used to measure angles. All angles are supposed to have their vertexes at the center O of the circle (see Fig. 60), one side of the angle lying to the right of O, and coinciding with the horizontal diameter, as $O\,B$.

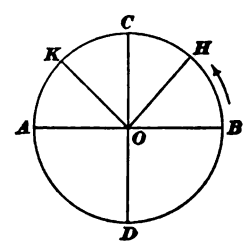


FIG. 60.

The point B on the arc is the starting point in measuring an angle; the angle is supposed to increase by moving around the circumference in the direction indicated by the arrow until the number of degrees, minutes, and seconds in the angle have been measured off on the arc. Suppose that it stops at the point H; draw $O\,H$, and $H\,O\,B$ will be the angle. If K had been the stopping point, $K\,O\,B$ would have been the angle.

In practice, angles are most conveniently laid off by using a protractor (see *Geometrical Drawing*), which is usually graduated to degrees and half degrees, minutes being estimated by the eye.

80. Since a quadrant is a fourth part of a circle, the number of degrees in a quadrant is one-fourth of 360°, or 90°. Hence, a right angle always contains 90°.

EXAMPLE.—The earth turns completely around on its axis once every day; through how many degrees does it turn in 1 hour?

SOLUTION.—In 1 day there are 24 hours, and since the earth turns through 360° in 24 hours, in 1 hour it will turn through 360° ÷ 24 = 15°. Ans.

81. In adding two angles together, seconds are added to seconds, minutes to minutes, and degrees to degrees; so, also, in subtracting two angles, seconds are subtracted from seconds, minutes from minutes, and degrees from degrees.

EXAMPLE 1.—Add 75° 46′ 17″ and 14° 27′ 34″.

SOLUTION.—

$$\begin{array}{r} 75^\circ\ 46'\ 17'' \\ 14^\circ\ 27'\ 34'' \\ \hline 89^\circ\ 73'\ 51'' \end{array}$$

Since 73′ = 1° 13′, the 1° is added to the 89°, and the sum is then written 90° 13′ 51″. Ans.

EXAMPLE 2.—What is the difference between 126° 14′ 20″ and 45° 28′ 13″?

SOLUTION.—

$$\begin{array}{r} 126^\circ\ 14'\ 20'' \\ 45^\circ\ 28'\ 13'' \\ \hline 7'' \end{array}$$

Since 28′ cannot be taken from 14′, 1° (= 60′) is taken from 126° and added to the 14′, and the above is written:

$$\begin{array}{r} 125^\circ\ 74'\ 20'' \\ 45^\circ\ 28'\ 13'' \\ \hline 80^\circ\ 46'\ \ 7''. \end{array} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE 3.—Subtract 49° 36′ 14″ from 90°.

SOLUTION.—Since 1° = 60′ and 1′ = 60″, we can write 90° = 89° 59′ 60″, and

$$\begin{array}{r} 89^\circ\ 59'\ 60'' \\ 49^\circ\ 36'\ 14'' \\ \hline 40^\circ\ 23'\ 46''. \end{array} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE 4.—Add 83° 15′ 39″ and 96° 44′ 21″.

SOLUTION.—

$$\begin{array}{r} 83^\circ\ 15'\ 39'' \\ 96^\circ\ 44'\ 21'' \\ \hline 179^\circ\ 59'\ 60'' \end{array}$$

Since 60″ = 1′, add 1′ to 59′, making it 60′; since 60′ = 1°, add 1 to 179°, making it 180°.

Therefore, 83° 15′ 39″ + 96° 44′ 21″ = 180°. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. Add 43° 0′ 59″ and 10° 59′ 40″. Ans. 54° 0′ 39″.
2. From 180° 12′ 20″ subtract 3° 12′ 56″. Ans. 176° 59′ 24″.
3. From 84° take 83° 14′ 10″, and to the result add 14′ 10″. Ans. 1°.

THE TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS.

82. A **function** of a quantity is another quantity depending on the first one for its value. The circumference of a circle, for example, is a function of the diameter, because the length of the circumference depends on the length of the diameter.

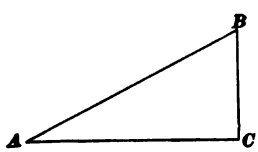


FIG. 61.

83. In the right triangle $A\,C\,B$, Fig. 61, right-angled at C, the size of the angle A (and consequently, also, of angle B) depends on the relative lengths of the sides $A\,C$, $A\,B$, and $B\,C$. No one of the sides can be changed without altering the length of at least one other side, and consequently changing the angles A and B, the angle C remaining a right angle. For this reason the sides are functions of the angles.

84. In Fig. 62, $A\,C\,B$ is a right triangle, right-angled at C. The sides $A\,B$ and $A\,C$ have been produced to B' and C', respectively, $B'\,C'$ being perpendicular to $A\,C'$ and therefore parallel to $B\,C$. The two triangles $A\,C\,B$ and $A\,C'\,B'$ are

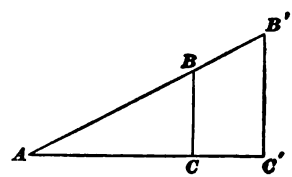


FIG. 62.

similar, since their corresponding angles are equal; hence, their corresponding sides are proportional, and we have the proportions

$$\frac{BC}{AB} = \frac{B'C'}{AB'}; \qquad \frac{BC}{AC} = \frac{B'C'}{AC'}.$$

It is evident that, no matter what the lengths of the sides of these similar triangles may be, the ratios $\frac{BC}{AB}$, $\frac{B'C'}{AB'}$, $\frac{BC}{AC}$, $\frac{B'C'}{AC'}$ will always have the same value so long as the angles remain the same. Therefore, if we knew what the values were for all angles, we could lay off any angle whatever. For, suppose that the ratio $\frac{BC}{AB}$ was known to be $\frac{1}{3}$; then, $\frac{BC}{AB} = \frac{1}{3}$ or $BC = \frac{1}{3}AB$. If we call AB, 1, then $BC = \frac{1}{3}$ and the angle can be constructed as shown in Fig. 63. Take AB as a radius and describe a circle; draw the two diameters DH and EF at right angles to each other. Lay off $AG = \frac{1}{3}$ (AB being 1), and draw GB parallel to DC, intersecting the circle in B. Then draw AB, and BAC is the required angle, since $BC = AG = \frac{1}{3}AB$.

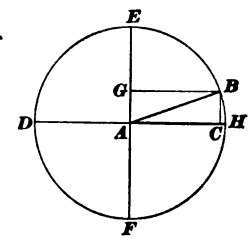


FIG. 63.

In a similar manner we can construct an angle when the ratio $\frac{BC}{AC}$ or $\frac{B'C'}{AC'}$ is known. Suppose this ratio is $\frac{2}{5}$ and that AC be taken equal to 1. With AC, Fig. 64, as a radius describe a circle and erect a perpendicular at C. Make $CB = \frac{2}{5}$ (AC being 1) and draw AB. Then, BAC is the required angle.

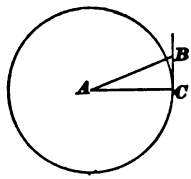


FIG. 64.

85. Suppose, in Fig. 62, the distances AC' and $B'C'$ were known, but that they were so great that it was impossible to lay them off on a drawing so that AB' could be drawn and measured; also, that it was necessary to know the direction of the line AB',

i. e., the angle A. Of course, a drawing could be made to a reduced scale; the angle A could be measured with a protractor; and the length of AB' could be measured with a scale. The results obtained in this manner would not, in general, be accurate; the method would be long and very inconvenient, and facilities for doing this might not be at hand. If, however, we had a table giving the values of the ratio $\frac{BC}{AC}$ for all angles, we could find the value of the ratio $\frac{B'C'}{AC'}$ $\left(\text{which equals the value of the ratio } \frac{BC}{AC}\right)$, and then by looking in the table, find what angle had this value; this angle would be the angle A. The length of AB' could be found by adding the squares of AC' and $B'C'$ and extracting the square root (see Art. **50**); an easier way would be to look in a table giving the values of the ratios $\frac{BC}{AB}$ and divide $B'C'$ by the ratio corresponding to angle A. For representing the value of the ratio $\frac{BC}{AB}$ by R, we have

$$\frac{BC}{AB} = \frac{B'C'}{AB'} = R, \text{ or } AB' = \frac{B'C'}{R}.$$

From the foregoing, it will be perceived that the ratios mentioned are extremely important—they constitute, in fact, the foundations of trigonometry. These ratios, together with several others not yet described, are called the **trigonometric functions.**

86. There are eight trigonometric functions, the four principal ones being the *sine*, *cosine*, *tangent*, and *cotangent*. The remaining four are the *secant*, *cosecant*, *versedsine*, and *coversedsine*.

In some works on trigonometry and engineering, the trigonometric functions are treated as lines, while in others they are treated as ratios. We shall therefore define them both ways, so the student will have no difficulty in understanding either method. These functions will now be defined.

87. In any right triangle, as $O\ C\ A$, Fig. 65, right-angled at C, considering the angle O, the side $A\ C$ is called the **side opposite** and the side $O\ C$ the **side adjacent**; $O\ A$ is, of course, the *hypotenuse*. Similarly, $O\ C$ is the side opposite and $A\ C$ the side adjacent for the angle A. The ratio of the side opposite to the hypotenuse is called the **sine**; that is, for the angle $A\ O\ C$,

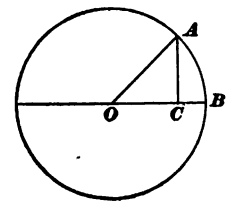


FIG. 65.

$$\text{Sine} = \frac{\text{side opposite}}{\text{hypotenuse}} = \frac{A\ C}{O\ A},$$

which is equal to $A\ C$, when $O\ A$ is taken as equal to 1. In other words, if a circle whose center is O is described *with a radius of unit length*, the perpendicular dropped from the point where one side of the angle (whose vertex is at the center of the circle) cuts the circle to the other side is the *sine*.

88. The **cosine** of an angle, as O, Fig. 65, is the ratio of the side adjacent to the hypotenuse; therefore,

$$\text{Cosine} = \frac{\text{side adjacent}}{\text{hypotenuse}} = \frac{O\ C}{O\ A},$$

which is equal to $O\ C$, when the radius $O\ A = 1$. In other words, the *cosine* is the distance from the foot of the sine to the center of the circle, when the radius is unity.

89. The **tangent** of an angle, as $A\ O\ B$, Fig. 66, is the ratio of the side opposite to the side adjacent; therefore,

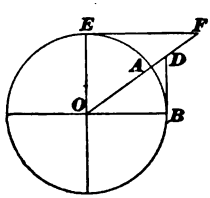


FIG. 66.

$$\text{Tangent} = \frac{\text{side opposite}}{\text{side adjacent}} = \frac{D\ B}{O\ B},$$

which is equal to $D\ B$, when the radius $O\ B = 1$. In other words, if a tangent is drawn at the right extremity of the horizontal diameter of a circle (described with a unit radius), which forms one side of an angle, and the other side of the angle is prolonged to meet it, the distance intercepted by the two sides of the angle is called the *tangent* of that angle.

90. The **cotangent** of an angle, as $A\,O\,B$, Fig. 66, is the ratio of the side adjacent to the side opposite; therefore,

$$\text{Cotangent} = \frac{\text{side adjacent}}{\text{side opposite}} = \frac{O\,B}{D\,B}.$$

The cotangent is represented by the line $E\,F$, which is tangent to the circle at E, for the triangles $F\,E\,O$ and $D\,B\,O$ are similar, since they both have a right angle; the angles $E\,F\,O$ and $D\,O\,B$ are equal (see Art. **28**), and the angles $F\,O\,E$ and $O\,D\,B$ are also equal, being complements of the same angle $D\,O\,B$ (see Arts. **26** and **49**). Therefore, $\frac{O\,B}{D\,B} = \frac{E\,F}{E\,O}$. But $E\,O$ is the radius, which we assumed to be 1, and $\frac{O\,B}{D\,B}$ is the cotangent of $D\,O\,B$; hence,

$$\text{Cotangent} = \frac{O\,B}{D\,B} = \frac{E\,F}{E\,O} = EF,$$

when the radius $O\,E = 1$. In other words, if a tangent is drawn from the upper extremity of a vertical diameter of a circle, whose horizontal diameter forms one side of an angle, and the other side of the angle is produced until it meets this tangent, the distance intercepted on this tangent between the extremity of the vertical diameter and the produced line is called the *cotangent* of that angle, when the radius = 1.

91. The **secant** of an angle is the ratio of the hypotenuse to the side adjacent; therefore, referring to Fig. 67,

$$\text{Secant} = \frac{\text{hypotenuse}}{\text{side adjacent}} = \frac{O\,A}{O\,C} = \frac{O\,D}{O\,B} = O\,D,$$

when the radius $O\,B = 1$. In other words, the *secant* is the line included between the point of intersection of the tangent with the inclined side of the angle and the center of a circle, when the radius = 1. $O\,D$ is also the secant in Fig. 66.

92. The **cosecant** is the ratio of the hypotenuse to the side opposite. Therefore, referring to Fig. 67,

$$\text{Cosecant} = \frac{\text{hypotenuse}}{\text{side opposite}} = \frac{OA}{AC}.$$

But, since ORN and OCA are similar right triangles, the side OR corresponding to side AC,

$$\text{Cosecant} = \frac{OA}{OC} = \frac{ON}{OR} = ON,$$

when the radius $OB = 1$. In other words, the *cosecant* is the line included between the point of intersection of the cotangent with the inclined side of the angle and the center of a circle, when the radius $= 1$. In Fig. 66, OF is the cosecant.

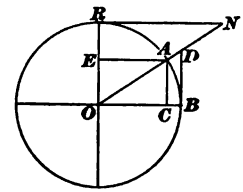


FIG. 67.

93. The versedsine and coversedsine are not generally treated as ratios. The **versedsine** is defined as 1 minus the cosine. In Fig. 67,

$$\text{Versedsine} = 1 - \text{cosine} = 1 - \frac{OC}{OA} = 1 - OC = CB,$$

when radius $OA = 1$.

The versedsine might be defined as the ratio of CB to OA (Fig. 67), CB being in all cases the distance from the foot C of the sine to the right extremity B of the horizontal diameter.

The **coversedsine** is equal to 1 minus the sine. In Fig. 67, AE is parallel to OB; hence, $EO = AC =$ sine of angle AOC, when radius $OA = 1$. Therefore,

$$\text{Coversedsine} = 1 - \text{sine} = 1 - \frac{AC}{OA}$$

$$= 1 - AC = 1 - EO = ER,$$

when radius $OA = 1$.

94. The four functions last defined are but little used except for special purposes; if required, they can be readily found from a table giving the values of sines, cosines, tangents, and cotangents; hence, we shall here treat only of the four functions first named.

In Art. **87**, the sine was defined as $\frac{\text{side opposite}}{\text{hypotenuse}}$, or as equal to $\frac{AC}{OA}$; in Art. **92**, the cosecant was defined as $\frac{\text{hypotenuse}}{\text{side opposite}}$, or as equal to $\frac{OA}{AC}$. It will be noticed that these two ratios are reciprocals* of each other, $\frac{AC}{OA} = \frac{1}{\frac{OA}{AC}} = \frac{AC}{OA}$.

In other words, the cosecant $= \frac{1}{\text{sine}}$, and, hence, to find the cosecant of an angle, all that is necessary is to divide 1 by the sine of the angle. From this it follows that dividing by the sine is the same as multiplying by the cosecant.

Similarly, the secant is the reciprocal of the cosine; that is, secant $= \frac{1}{\text{cosine}}$. Hence, if it is required to find the secant of some angle, the secant may be found by dividing 1 by the cosine of the angle. Therefore, dividing by the cosine is equivalent to multiplying by the secant.

To find the versedsine of angle, find its cosine and subtract it from 1; to find the coversedsine, find the sine of the angle and subtract it from 1.

By comparing the ratios of the tangent and cotangent, it will be noticed that the cotangent is the reciprocal of the tangent; likewise, the tangent is the reciprocal of the cotangent.

It may be readily shown that, by dividing the ratio for the sine by that for the cosine, the tangent is equal to $\frac{\text{sine}}{\text{cosine}}$. Similarly, the cotangent is equal to $\frac{\text{cosine}}{\text{sine}}$. Hence, having given the sine and cosine of any angle, its tangent and cotangent are easily found.

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* The *reciprocal* of a number is 1 divided by the number. The reciprocal of 4 is $\frac{1}{4}$, and 4 and $\frac{1}{4}$ are said to be reciprocals of each other. The reciprocal of a fraction is the fraction inverted; thus, the reciprocal of $\frac{7}{8}$ is $\frac{8}{7}$.

95. The words cosine, cotangent, cosecant, and coversed-sine are abbreviations for complement sine, complement tangent, etc., which in turn are abbreviations for the expressions "sine of complement," "tangent of complement," etc. In other words, the cosine of an angle is equal to the sine of the complement of that angle; the cotangent of an angle is equal to the tangent of its complement, etc.

That the cosine is equal to the sine of the complement is readily seen by referring to Fig. 67. Here, $A\,O\,B$ is the given angle and $A\,O\,R$ is its complement (see Art. **26**); $A\,C$ is its sine and $O\,C$ is its cosine. It is evident, from the definition of the sine, that $E\,A$ is the sine of the angle $A\,O\,R$. But $E\,A$ is equal to $O\,C$, since $E\,A\,C\,O$ is a rectangle; therefore, the cosine of $A\,O\,B$ is equal to the sine of its complement $A\,O\,R$.

Similarly, $R\,N$ is the tangent of $A\,O\,R$ and the cotangent of $A\,O\,B$, and $O\,N$ is the secant of $A\,O\,R$ and the cosecant of $A\,O\,B$. The cosine of $A\,O\,R$ is $O\,E$, which is equal to $A\,C$, the sine of $A\,O\,B$. Therefore, the versedsine of $A\,O\,R$ is $E\,R$, the coversedsine of $A\,O\,B$. In other words, the coversedsine of $A\,O\,B$ is equal to the versedsine of $A\,O\,R$, the complement of $A\,O\,B$.

96. In order to save time and space in writing, the names of the functions are abbreviated as follows: **Sin** for sine; **cos** for cosine; **tan** for tangent; **cot** for cotangent; **sec** for secant; **csc** or **cosec** for cosecant; **vers** for versedsine; and **cvs** or **covers** for coversedsine. These abbreviations are used only when referring directly to angles; when the names are used in a general sense, they are written out in full. Let A represent some angle; then, if it were desired to refer to the sine, tangent, etc. of this angle, it would be written sin A, tan A, etc., and these expressions would be read "sine A," "tangent A," etc.

These abbreviations must always be pronounced in full. Thus, cos 14° 22′ 46″ is pronounced *cosine fourteen degrees twenty-two minutes forty-six seconds;* tan 45° is pronounced *tangent forty-five degrees.*

97. To facilitate calculations, tables of the trigonometric functions are employed. These tables give the sine, cosine, tangent, and cotangent of the degrees and minutes in a circle whose radius is 1. There are two kinds of tables giving the trigonometric functions; viz., the table of *natural functions* and the table of *logarithmic functions*. The table of **natural functions** gives the actual values of the ratios, while the table of **logarithmic functions** gives the logarithms of the natural functions. Only the table of natural functions is described in the present text.

98. From the definitions of the various trigonometric functions we derive the following very useful rules for right triangles:

$$Sine = \frac{side\ opposite}{hypotenuse};\ \text{therefore,}$$

Rule 1.—*Side opposite = hypotennse × sine.**

Rule 2.—$Hypotenuse = \dfrac{side\ opposite}{sine}$.

$$Cosine = \frac{side\ adjacent}{hypotenuse};\ \text{therefore,}$$

Rule 3.—*Side adjacent = hypotenuse × cosine.*

Rule 4.—$Hypotenuse = \dfrac{side\ adjacent}{cosine}$.

$$Tangent = \frac{side\ opposite}{side\ adjacent};\ \text{therefore,}$$

Rule 5.—*Side opposite = side adjacent × tangent.*

$$Cotangent = \frac{side\ adjacent}{side\ opposite};\ \text{therefore,}$$

Rule 6.—*Side adjacent = side opposite × cotangent.*

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* Since the quotient equals the dividend divided by the divisor, the dividend equals the product of the divisor and quotient.

TRIGONOMETRIC TABLES.

99. We shall now explain how to find the sine, cosine, tangent, and cotangent of an angle by means of the table of natural trigonometric functions that accompanies this text. It may here be remarked that the values of the functions are never calculated directly (except in making a table), because the process is so long and laborious that it would require considerable time to calculate even the value of one function of a single angle, and there is no simple method of determining the angle corresponding to a given function, except by aid of a table. As they are not necessary, the secants, cosecants, versedsines, and coversedsines are omitted entirely.

100. Given an angle, to find its sine, cosine, tangent, and cotangent:

EXAMPLE 1.—Let it be required to find the sine, cosine, tangent, and cotangent of an angle of 37° 24′.

SOLUTION.—Look in the table of *natural sines* along the tops of the pages and find 37°. The left-hand column is marked (′), meaning that the minutes are to be sought in that column, and begin with 0, 1, 2, 3, etc., to 60. Glancing *down* this column until 24′ is found, find opposite this 24′ in the column marked *sine*, and headed 37°, the number .60738; then, .60738 = sin 37° 24′. In exactly the same manner, find opposite 24′ in the column marked *cosine*, and headed 37°, the number .79441, which corresponds to cos 37° 24′; or cos 37° 24′ = .79441. So, also, find in the column marked *tangent*, and headed 37°, and opposite 24′, the number .76456; whence, tan 37° 24′ = .76456. Finally, find in the column marked *cotangent*, and headed 37°, and opposite 24′, the number 1.30795; whence, cot 37° 24′ = 1.30795.

In most of the tables published, the angles run only from 0° to 45°, at the heads of the columns; to find an angle greater than 45°, *look at the bottom of the page and glance upwards*, **using the extreme right-hand column to find minutes,** which begin with 0 at the *bottom* and run upwards, 1, 2, 3, etc., to 60.

EXAMPLE 2. — Find the sine, cosine, tangent, and cotangent of 77° 43′.

SOLUTION.—Since this angle is greater than 45°, look along the bottom of the tables, until the column marked *sine* at the bottom,

and having 77° under it, is found. Glancing *up* the column of minutes on the *right*, until 43′ is found, find opposite 43′ in the column marked *sine* at the bottom, and having 77° under it, the number .97711; this is the sine of 77° 43′, or sin 77° 43′ = .97711. Similarly, in the column marked *cosine*, and having 77° under it, find opposite 43′, in the right-hand column, the number .21275; this is the cosine of 77° 43′, or cos 77° 43′ = .21275. So, also, find that 4.59283 is the tangent of 77° 43′, or tan 77° 43′ = 4.59283. Finally, in the same manner, find that the cotangent of 77° 43′ or cot 77° 43′ = .21773.

101. Let it be required to find the sine of 14° 22′ 26″.

EXPLANATION.—The sine of 14° 22′ 26″ lies between the sine of 14° 22′ and the sine of 14° 23′. For a difference of 1 minute or less between two or more angles, it is correct to assume that the differences in the values of the sine, cosine, etc. of the angles are proportional to the differences in the number of seconds in these angles. The difference in the number of seconds between 14° 22′ and 14° 22′ 26″ is 26″, and between 14° 22′ and 14° 23′ is 60″. The sine of 14° 22′ is .24813 ; sine of 14° 23′ is .24841. The difference between the value of the sine of 14° 22′ and the sine of 14° 22′ 26″ is not known; hence, represent it by x. The difference between the value of the sine of 14° 22′ and the sine of 14° 23′ is .24841 − .24813 = .00028, or 28 parts. Therefore, we have the proportion

$$26'' : 60'' = x \text{ parts} : 28 \text{ parts, or } \frac{26''}{60''} = \frac{x \text{ parts}}{28 \text{ parts}},$$

from which $$x \text{ parts} = \frac{26}{60} \times 28 = 12.1 \text{ parts.}$$

Neglecting the .1, since .1 is less than .5, we must add 12 parts, or .00012, to .24813 to obtain the sine of 14° 22′ 26″. Hence, sin 14° 22′ 26″ = .24813 + .00012 = .24825.

102. By referring to the table of sines, cosines, tangents, and cotangents, it will be observed that, as the angles increase in size, the sines and tangents increase, while the *cosines and cotangents decrease*. In the above example, therefore, had it been required to find the *cosine* or the *cotangent* of 14° 22′ 26″, the correction for the 26″ would have been *subtracted* from the cosine or the cotangent of 14° 22′ instead

of added to it. The reason for this will be made apparent on referring to Fig. 67. Here it will be seen that as the sine and tangent increase, the cosine and cotangent decrease, and vice versa. From the foregoing we have, to find the sine, cosine, tangent, or cotangent of an angle containing seconds, the following rule :

Rule 7.—*Find in the table the sine, cosine, tangent, or cotangent corresponding to the degrees and minutes of the angle.*

For the seconds, find the difference between this value and the value of the sine, cosine, tangent, or cotangent of an angle 1 minute greater; multiply this difference by a fraction whose numerator is the number of seconds in the given angle and whose denominator is 60.

If the sine or tangent is sought, add this correction to the value first found; if the cosine or cotangent is sought, subtract the correction.

EXAMPLE.—Find the sine, cosine, tangent, and cotangent of 56° 43′ 17″.

SOLUTION.—Sin 56° 43′ = .83597. Sin 56° 44′ = .83613. Since 56° 43′ 17″ is greater than 56° 43′ and less than 56° 44′, the value of the sine of the angle lies between .83597 and .83613; the difference = .83613 − .83597 = .00016. Multiplying this by the fraction $\frac{17}{60}$, .00016 × $\frac{17}{60}$ = .00005, nearly, which is to be *added* to .83597, the value first found, or .83597 + .00005 = .83602. Hence, sin 56° 43′ 17″ = .83602. Ans.

Cos 56° 43′ = .54878; cos 56° 44′ = .54854; the difference = .54878 − .54854 = .00024, and .00024 × $\frac{17}{60}$ = .00007, nearly. Now, since the *cosine* is sought, we must *subtract* this correction from cos 56° 43′ or .54878; subtracting, .54878 − .00007 = .54871. Hence, cos 56° 43′ 17″ = .54871. Ans.

Tan 56° 43′ = 1.52332; tan 56° 44′ = 1.52429; the difference = .00097, and .00097 × $\frac{17}{60}$ = .00027, nearly. Since the tangent is sought, we must *add*, giving 1.52332 + .00027 = 1.52359. Hence, tan 56° 43′ 17″ = 1.52359. Ans.

Cot 56° 43′ = .65646; cot 56° 44′ = .65604; the difference = .00042, and .00042 × $\frac{17}{60}$ = .00012, nearly. Since the cotangent is sought, we must *subtract*, giving .65646 − .00012 = .65634. Hence, cot 56° 43′ 17″ = .65634. Ans.

103. Given the sine, cosine, tangent, or cotangent, to find the angle corresponding:

EXAMPLE 1.—The sine of an angle is .47486; what is the angle?

SOLUTION.—Consulting the table of natural sines, glance down the columns marked *sine* until .47486 is found opposite 21′, in the left-hand column, and under the column headed 28°. Therefore, the angle whose sine = .47486 is 28° 21′, or sin 28° 21′ = .47486. Ans.

EXAMPLE 2.—Find the angle whose cosine is .27032.

SOLUTION.—Looking in the columns marked *cosine*, at the top of the page, it is not found; hence, the angle is greater than 45°. Consequently, looking in the columns marked *cosine* at the bottom of the page, it is found opposite 19′, in the *right-hand* column of minutes, and in the column having 74° at the bottom. Therefore, the angle whose cosine is .27032 is 74° 19′, or cos 74° 19′ = .27032. Ans.

EXAMPLE 3.—Find the angle whose tangent is 2.15925.

SOLUTION.—On searching the table of natural tangents, the given tangent is found to belong to an angle greater than 45°, so it must be looked for in the column marked *tangent* at the bottom. It is found opposite 9′, in the right-hand column of minutes and in the column having 65° at the bottom. Therefore, tan 65° 9′ = 2.15925. Ans.

EXAMPLE 4.—Find the angle whose cotangent is .43412.

SOLUTION.—From the table of natural cotangents, it is found that this value is less than the cotangent of 45°, so it must be found in the column marked *cotangent* at the bottom. Looking there, it is found in the column having 66° at the bottom, and opposite 32′, in the right-hand column of minutes. Therefore, the angle whose cotangent is .43412 is 66° 32′, or cot 66° 32′ = .43412. Ans.

104. Let it be required to find the angle whose sine is .42531.

EXPLANATION.—Referring to the table of sines, this number is found to lie between .42525, the sine of 25° 10′, and .42552, the sine of 25° 11′. The difference between these two numbers is .42552 − .42525 = .00027, or 27 parts; the difference between .42525, the sine of 25° 10′, and .42531, the sine of the given angle, is .42531 − .42525 = .00006, or 6 parts. Representing by x the number of seconds that the angle whose sine is .42531 exceeds 25° 10′, we have the proportion

$$x'' : 60'' = 6 \text{ parts} : 27 \text{ parts},$$

or

$$\frac{x''}{60''} = \frac{6 \text{ parts}}{27 \text{ parts}};$$

from which $x = 60 \times \frac{6}{27} = 13.3''$. Hence, the angle whose sine is .42531 is 25° 10′ 13.3″.

The angle is found from the cosine, tangent, and cotangent in exactly the same manner.

105. To find the angle corresponding to a given sine, cosine, tangent, or cotangent, whose exact value is not contained in the table:

Rule 8.—*Find the difference of the two numbers in the table between which the given sine, cosine, tangent, or cotangent falls, and use the number of parts in this difference as the denominator of a fraction.*

Find the difference between the number belonging to the **smaller angle** *and the given sine, cosine, tangent, or cotangent, and use the number of parts in the difference just found as the numerator of the fraction mentioned above. Multiply this fraction by 60, and the result will be the number of seconds to be added to the* **smaller angle.**

EXAMPLE 1.—Find the angle whose sine is .57698.

SOLUTION.—Looking in the table of natural sines, in the columns marked *sine*, it is found between .57691 = sin 35° 14′ and .57715 = sin 35° 15′. The difference between them is .57715 − .57691 = .00024, or 24 parts. The difference between the sine of the smaller angle, or sin 35° 14′ = .57691, and the given sine, or .57698, is .57698 − .57691 = .00007, or 7 parts. Then, $\frac{7}{24} \times 60 = 17.5''$, and the required angle is 35° 14′ 17.5″, or sin 35° 14′ 17.5″ = .57698. Ans.

EXAMPLE 2.—Find the angle whose cosine is .27052.

SOLUTION.—Looking in the table of cosines, it is found to belong to a greater angle than 45° and, hence, must be sought for in the columns marked *cosine*, at the bottom of the page. It is found between the numbers .27060 = cos 74° 18′ and .27032 = cos 74° 19′. The difference between the two numbers is .27060 − .27032 = .00028, or 28 parts. The cosine of the *smaller angle*, or 74° 18′, is .27060, and the difference between this and the given cosine is .27060 − .27052 = .00008, or 8 parts. Hence, $\frac{8}{28} \times 60 = 17.1''$, nearly, and the angle whose cosine is .27052 = 74° 18′ 17.1″, or cos 74° 18′ 17.1″ = .27052. Ans.

EXAMPLE 3.—Find the angle whose tangent is 2.15841.

SOLUTION.— 2.15841 falls between 2.15760 = tan 65° 8′ and 2.15925 = tan 65° 9′. The difference between these numbers is 2.15925 − 2.15760

$= .00165$, or 165 parts. $2.15841 - 2.15760 = .00081$, or 81 parts. Hence, $\frac{81}{165} \times 60 = 29.5''$, nearly, and the angle whose tangent is 2.15841 $= 65° \; 8' \; 29.5''$, or $\tan 65° \; 8' \; 29.5'' = 2.15841$. Ans.

EXAMPLE 4.—Find the angle whose cotangent is 1.26342.

SOLUTION.— 1.26342 falls between $1.26395 = \cot 38° \; 21'$ and $1.26319 = \cot 38° \; 22'$. The difference between these numbers is $1.26395 - 1.26319 = .00076$. $1.26395 - 1.26342 = .00053$. $\frac{53}{76} \times 60 = 41.9$, nearly, and the angle whose cotangent is $1.26342 = 38° \; 21' \; 41.9''$, or $\cot 38° \; 21' \; 41.9'' = 1.26342$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. Find the (*a*) sine, (*b*) cosine, and (*c*) tangent of 48° 17′.

Ans. (*a*) .74644. (*b*) .66545. (*c*) 1.12172.

2. Find the (*a*) sine, (*b*) cosine, and (*c*) tangent of 13° 11′ 6″.

Ans. (*a*) .22810. (*b*) .97364. (*c*) .23427.

3. Find the (*a*) sine, (*b*) cosine, and (*c*) tangent of 72° 0′ 1.8″.

Ans. (*a*) .95106. (*b*) .30901. (*c*) 3.07777.

4. (*a*) Of what angle is .26489 the sine? (*b*) Of what is it the cosine?

Ans. (*a*) 15° 21′ 37.2″. (*b*) 74° 38′ 22.8″.

5. (*a*) Of what angle is .68800 the sine? (*b*) Of what the cosine? (*c*) Of what the tangent?

Ans. (*a*) 43° 28′ 20″. (*b*) 46° 31′ 40″. (*c*) 34° 31′ 40.5″.

THE SOLUTION OF TRIANGLES.

RIGHT TRIANGLES.

106. As previously stated, every triangle has six parts, three sides and three angles, and if any three parts are given, one of them being a side, the other three may be found.

In right triangles, it is only necessary to know *two* parts in addition to the right angle, one of which must be a side.

Rules **1** to **8** and the definitions of sine, cosine, tangent, and cotangent are sufficient for solving all cases of right triangles. The method is best illustrated by examples. There are two cases.

107. Case I.—*When the two given parts are a side and an angle:*

EXAMPLE 1.—In Fig. 68, the length of the hypotenuse $A\,B$ of the right triangle $A\,C\,B$, right-angled at C, is 24 feet, and the angle A is 29° 31′; find the sides $A\,C$ and $B\,C$ and the angle B.

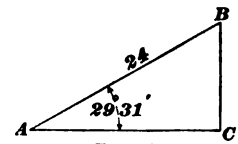

FIG. 68.

NOTE.—When working examples of this kind, construct the figure and mark the known parts. This is a great help in solving the example. Hence, in the figure, draw the angle A to represent an angle of 29° 31′ and complete the right triangle $A\,C\,B$, right-angled at C, as shown. Mark the angle A and the hypotenuse, as is done in the figure.

SOLUTION.—Referring to Art. **49**, angle $B = 90° - 29°\ 31' = 60°\ 29'$. To find $A\,C$, use rule **3**; viz., $A\,C$, or side adjacent = hypotenuse × cosine = $24 \times \cos 29°\ 31' = 24 \times .87021 = 20.89$ feet, nearly.

To find $B\,C$, use the same rule; thus, $B\,C = 24 \times \cos 60°\ 29' = 24 \times .49268 = 11.82$ feet, nearly. To find $B\,C$, rule **1** could also have been used, viz., side opposite = hypotenuse × sine, or $B\,C = 24 \times \sin 29°\ 31' = 24 \times .49268 = 11.82$ feet, nearly.

Ans. { Angle $B = 60°\ 29'$.
Side $A\,C = 20.89$ ft.
Side $B\,C = 11.82$ ft.

EXAMPLE 2.—One side of a right triangle $A\,C\,B$, right-angled at C, Fig. 69, is 37 feet 7 inches long; the angle opposite is 25° 33′ 7″. What are the lengths of the hypotenuse and the side adjacent, and what is the other angle?

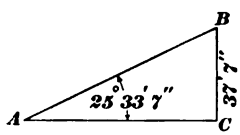

FIG. 69.

SOLUTION.—Angle $B = 90° - 25°\ 33'\ 7'' = 64°\ 26'\ 53''$.

To find the hypotenuse, use rule **2**,

$$\text{Hypotenuse} = \frac{\text{side opposite}}{\text{sine}}.$$

Since the side opposite is given in feet and inches, both must be reduced to feet or both to inches.

7 inches = $\frac{7}{12}$ foot = .583+ foot; hence, $B\,C = 37.583$ feet.

Therefore, the hypotenuse is equal to

$$\frac{37.583}{\sin 25°\ 33'\ 7''} = \frac{37.583}{.43133} = 87.133 \text{ feet} = 87 \text{ feet } 2 \text{ inches, nearly.}$$

To find the side $A\,C$, use rule **3**; side adjacent = hypotenuse × cosine = 87.133 × cos 25° 33′ 7″ = 87.133 × .90219 = 78.61 feet = 78 feet 7¼ inches, nearly.

$$\text{Ans.}\begin{cases}\text{Angle } B = 64^\circ\ 26'\ 53''.\\ A\,C = 78 \text{ ft. } 7\tfrac{1}{4} \text{ in.}\\ A\,B = 87 \text{ ft. } 2 \text{ in.}\end{cases}$$

The work involved in finding the sine and cosine of 25° 33′ 7″, in the above example, is as follows: Sin 25° 33′ = .43130; sin 25° 34′ = .43156; difference = .00026; .00026 × $\frac{7}{60}$ = .00003. Hence, sin 25° 33′ 7″ = .43130 + .00003 = .43133.

Cos 25° 33′ = .90221; cos 25° 34′ = .90208; difference = .00013; .00013 × $\frac{7}{60}$ = .00002, nearly. Hence, cos 25° 33′ 7″ = .90221 − .00002 = .90219.

108. Case II.—*When two sides are given:*

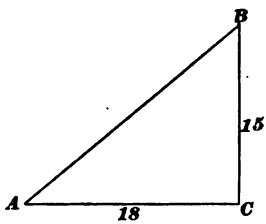

FIG. 70.

EXAMPLE 1.—In the right triangle $A\,C\,B$, Fig. 70, right-angled at C, $A\,C = 18$ and $B\,C = 15$; find $A\,B$ and the angles A and B.

SOLUTION.—As neither of the two acute angles is given, one of the angles must be found by making use of the definition of one of the functions of the angle. Considering the angle A, we have: side opposite equals 15 and the side adjacent equals 18; hence, we may use the definition of either the tangent or cotangent. Using the definition of the tangent,

$$\tan A = \frac{\text{side opposite}}{\text{side adjacent}} = \frac{15}{18} = .83333.$$

To find the angle whose tangent is .83333, we have: Tangent of next less angle is .83317 = tan 39° 48′; tangent of the next greater angle is .83366; difference is .00049. The difference between .83317, the tangent of the smaller angle, and .83333, the given tangent, is .83333 − .83317 = .00016. Hence, $\frac{16}{49}$ × 60 = 19.6″, and the angle whose tangent is .83333 = 39° 48′ 19.6″ = angle A.

Angle B = 90° − 39° 48′ 19.6″ = 50° 11′ 40.4″.

To find the hypotenuse $A\,B$, use rule **2** or **4**; using rule **2**,

$$\text{Hypotenuse} = \frac{\text{side opposite}}{\text{sine}} = \frac{15}{\sin 39^\circ\ 48'\ 19.6''} = \frac{15}{.64018} = 23.43.$$

$$\text{Ans.}\begin{cases}\text{Angle } A = 39^\circ\ 48'\ 19.6''.\\ \text{Angle } B = 50^\circ\ 11'\ 40.4''.\\ A\,B = 23.43.\end{cases}$$

EXAMPLE 2.—In the right triangle $A\,C\,B$, Fig. 71 right-angled at C, $A\,C$ = .024967 mile and $A\,B$ = .04792 mile; find the other parts.

SOLUTION.—Here the hypotenuse and the side adjacent are given; hence, using the definition of the cosine,

$$\cos A = \frac{\text{side adjacent}}{\text{hypotenuse}} = \frac{.024967}{.04792} = .52101.$$

The angle whose cosine is $.52101 = 58° 36'$ $=$ angle A. Angle $B = 90° - 58° 36' = 31° 24'$.

To find side $B C$, use rule **5**.

Side opposite A = side adjacent $\times$ tan A, or $B C = .024967 \times 1.63826 = .0409$ mile.

Ans. $\begin{cases} \text{Angle } A = 58° 36'. \\ \text{Angle } B = 31° 24'. \\ B C = .0409 \text{ mi.} \end{cases}$

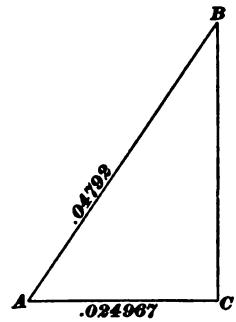

FIG. 71.

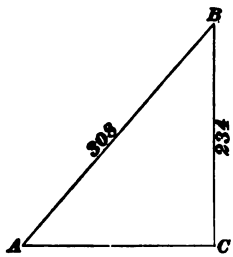

FIG. 72.

EXAMPLE 3.—In the right triangle $A C B$, Fig. 72, right-angled at C, $A B = 308$ feet and $B C = 234$ feet; find the other parts.

SOLUTION.—Here the hypotenuse and the side opposite are given; hence, using the definition of sine,

$$\sin A = \frac{\text{side opposite}}{\text{hypotenuse}} = \frac{234}{308} = .75974.$$

The angle whose sine is $.75974 = 49° 26' 28''$, nearly, $=$ angle A. Angle $B = 90° - 49° 26' 28''$ $= 40° 33' 32''$.

To find $A C$, rule **1, 3, 5,** or **6** may be used. Using rule **6,**

side adjacent angle A = side opposite $\times$ cot A, or $A C = 234 \times .85586$ $= 200.27$ feet.

Ans. $\begin{cases} \text{Angle } A = 49° 26' 28''. \\ \text{Angle } B = 40° 33' 32''. \\ A C = 200.27 \text{ ft.} \end{cases}$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. In the right triangle $A C B$, right-angled at C, the hypotenuse $A B = 40$ inches and angle $A = 28° 14' 14''$. Solve the triangle.

Ans. $\begin{cases} \text{Angle } B = 61° 45' 46''. \\ A C = 35.24 \text{ in.} \\ B C = 18.92 \text{ in.} \end{cases}$

2. In a right triangle $A C B$, right-angled at C, the side $B C$ $= 10$ feet 4 inches. If angle $A = 26° 59' 6''$, what do the other parts equal?

Ans. $\begin{cases} \text{Angle } B = 63° 0' 54''. \\ A B = 22 \text{ ft. } 9\tfrac{1}{4} \text{ in., nearly.} \\ A C = 20 \text{ ft. } 3\tfrac{1}{4} \text{ in., nearly.} \end{cases}$

3. In a right triangle $A\,C\,B$, the hypotenuse $A\,B = 60$ feet and the side $A\,C = 22$ feet. Solve the triangle.

$$\text{Ans.}\begin{cases}\text{Angle } A = 68^\circ\ 29'\ 22.2''.\\ \text{Angle } B = 21^\circ\ 30'\ 37.8''.\\ B\,C = 55.82 \text{ ft.}\end{cases}$$

4. In a right triangle $A\,C\,B$, right-angled at C, side $A\,C = .364$ foot and side $B\,C = .216$ foot. Solve the triangle.

$$\text{Ans.}\begin{cases}\text{Angle } A = 30^\circ\ 41'\ 7.5''.\\ \text{Angle } B = 59^\circ\ 18'\ 52.5''.\\ A\,B = .423 \text{ ft.}\end{cases}$$

OBLIQUE TRIANGLES.

109. When three parts of *any* triangle are given, one being a side, the remaining parts can be found by drawing a perpendicular from one angle to the opposite side, thus forming two right triangles. The parts of these right triangles can then be computed, and from them the parts of the required triangle can be found.

110. CAUTION.—*When dividing the triangle into two right triangles, care must be taken that the perpendicular be so drawn that one of the right triangles will have two known parts besides the right angle; otherwise the triangle cannot be solved.*

111. Case I.—*When the three known parts are a side and two angles, or two sides and the included angle:*

EXAMPLE 1.—In Fig. 73, the angle $A = 46^\circ\ 14'$, the angle $B = 88^\circ\ 24'\ 11''$, and the side $A\,B = 21$ inches; find $A\,C$, $B\,C$, and the angle C.

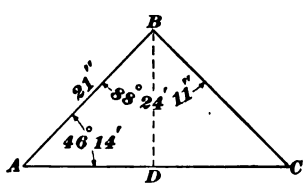

FIG. 73.

SOLUTION.—Since the sum of all the angles of any triangle is 2 right angles, or 180° (Art. **48**), we can find the angle C by adding the two known angles and subtracting their sum from 180°.

$$88^\circ\ 24'\ 11'' + 46^\circ\ 14' = 134^\circ\ 38'\ 11''.$$

$$180^\circ - 134^\circ\ 38'\ 11'' = 45^\circ\ 21'\ 49'' = \text{angle } C.$$

From the vertex B, draw $B\,D$ perpendicular to $A\,C$. The triangle $A\,B\,C$ is now divided into two right triangles $A\,D\,B$ and $B\,D\,C$, both right-angled at D.

In the right triangle $A\,D\,B$, the angle A, the right angle D, and the hypotenuse $A\,B$ are known; find $B\,D$ and $A\,D$. Using rule **1**, side opposite, or $B\,D$, $= 21 \times \sin 46° 14' = 21 \times .72216 = 15.17$ inches, nearly.

Using rule **3**, side adjacent, or $A\,D$, $= 21 \times \cos 46° 14' = 21 \times .69172$, or $A\,D = 14.53$ inches, nearly.

In the right triangle $B\,D\,C$, the angle C and the side opposite, or $B\,D$, are known; find $B\,C$ and $D\,C$.

Using rule **2**, hypotenuse, or

$$B\,C = \frac{B\,D}{\sin 45° 21' 49''} = \frac{15.17}{.71158} = 21.32 \text{ inches, nearly.}$$

Using rule **3**, side adjacent, or $C\,D$, $= 21.32 \times \cos 45° 21' 49'' = 21.32 \times .70261 = 14.98$ inches.

Since $A\,D + D\,C = A\,C$, we have $14.53 + 14.98 = 29.51$ inches $= A\,C$.

$$\text{Ans.} \begin{cases} A\,C = 29.51 \text{ in.} \\ B\,C = 21.32 \text{ in.} \\ \text{Angle } C = 45° 21' 49''. \end{cases}$$

If, in the above example, the angle C had been given instead of the angle A, the dividing line should have been drawn from the angle A to the side $B\,C$, as in the following example:

EXAMPLE 2.—In the triangle $A\,B\,C$, Fig. 74, given $A\,B = 18$ inches, angle $B = 60°$, and angle $C = 38° 42'$; find the other three parts.

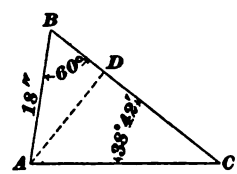

FIG. 74.

SOLUTION.—In the triangle $A\,B\,C$, we have angle $A = 180° - (60° + 38° 42') = 81° 18'$.

From the vertex A, draw the line $A\,D$ perpendicular to $B\,C$, thus forming the right triangles $A\,D\,B$ and $A\,D\,C$.

In the triangle $A\,D\,B$, two parts (the side $A\,B$ and angle B) are known besides the right angle. To find $B\,D$, use rule **3**. $B\,D = 18 \times \cos 60° = 18 \times .5 = 9$ inches. To find $A\,D$, use rule **1**. $A\,D = 18 \times \sin 60° = 18 \times .86603 = 15.59$ inches.

In the right triangle $A\,D\,C$, $A\,D$ and the angle C are known.

To find $A\,C$, use rule **2**.

$$A\,C = \frac{A\,D}{\sin C} = \frac{15.59}{.62524} = 24.93 \text{ inches.}$$

To obtain $D\,C$, use rule **3**.

$$D\,C = A\,C \times \cos C = 24.93 \times .78043 = 19.46 \text{ inches.}$$

Since $B\,C = B\,D + D\,C$, $B\,C = 9 + 19.46 = 28.46$ inches.

$$\text{Ans.} \begin{cases} A\,C = 24.93 \text{ in.} \\ B\,C = 28.46 \text{ in.} \\ \text{Angle } A = 81° 18'. \end{cases}$$

EXAMPLE 3.—In Fig. 75, $AB = 19$ inches, $AC = 23$ inches, and the included angle $A = 36° 3' 29''$; find tne other two angles and the side BC.

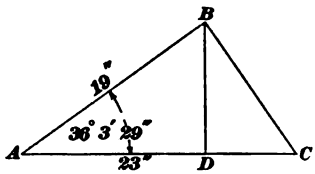

FIG. 75.

SOLUTION.—From the vertex B, draw BD perpendicular to AC, forming the two right triangles ADB and BDC. In the right triangle ADB, AB is known and also the angle A. Hence, by rule **1**,

$BD = 19 \times \sin 36° 3' 29'' = 19 \times .58861 = 11.18$ inches, nearly.

By rule **3**, $AD = 19 \times \cos 36° 3' 29'' = 19 \times .80842 = 15.36$ inches.

$AC - AD = 23 - 15.36 = 7.64$ inches $= DC$.

In the right triangle BDC, the two sides BD and DC, about the right angle, are known; hence, from the definition of tangent,

$$\tan C = \frac{BD}{DC} = \frac{11.18}{7.64} = 1.46335, \text{ and angle } C = 55° 39' 10''.$$

Applying rule **2**,

$$BC = \frac{BD}{\sin 55° 39' 10''} = \frac{11.18}{.82564} = 13.54 \text{ inches.}$$

Angle $B = 180° - (36°3'29'' + 55°39'10'') = 180° - 91°42'39'' = 88° 17' 21''$.

Ans. $\begin{cases} \text{Angle } C = 55° 39' 10''. \\ \text{Angle } B = 88° 17' 21''. \\ \text{Side } BC = 13.54 \text{ in.} \end{cases}$

112. Case II.—*When the three known parts are two sides and an angle opposite one of them:*

For this case there are, in general, two solutions. This is readily seen by referring to Fig. 76. Suppose the given parts are the sides AB and BC and the angle A opposite the side BC. We construct the triangle by first drawing the lines AE and AF in such a manner that the angle A shall be of the required size, and then lay off the distance AB along AE to represent the length of the side AB. To draw the side BC, we take the point B as a center, and with a radius equal to the length of BC, we describe the arc CC' and draw BC and BC'. The required triangle may be either ABC or

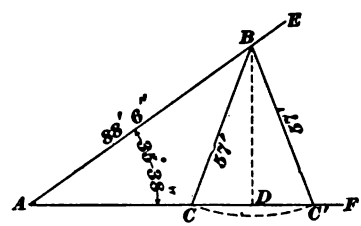

FIG. 76.

$A\,B\,C'$. In practice, the conditions will indicate to us which triangle to select; but when the two sides and the angle opposite one of them only are given and no other condition is stated, it is necessary to solve both triangles, which is readily done as follows:

First solve the triangle $A\,B\,C$. To do this, find the length of the perpendicular $B\,D$ by applying rule **1** to angle A ($B\,D = A\,B \times \sin A$); find angle $B\,C\,D$ by applying definition of sine to angle $B\,C\,D$ $\left(\sin B\,C\,D = \frac{B\,D}{C\,B}\right)$; find $C\,D$ by applying rule **3** ($C\,D = C\,B \times \cos B\,C\,D$); find $A\,D$ by applying rule **3** ($A\,D = A\,B \times \cos A$). We now know all that is necessary to determine the unknown parts of both triangles. For, the angle $A\,C\,B$ is the supplement (see Art. **27**) of the angle $B\,C\,D$, and is therefore equal to $180° -$ angle $B\,C\,D$; the angle $A\,B\,C = 180° -$ (angle $B\,A\,C +$ angle $A\,C\,B$); the side $A\,C = A\,D - C\,D$; since $C\,B\,C'$ is an isosceles triangle, angle $B\,C\,D = B\,C'\,D$ and $C'\,D = C\,D$; $A\,C' = A\,D + C'\,D$; and, finally, angle $A\,B\,C' = 180° -$ (angle $A +$ angle C').

113. While, in general, there are two solutions to examples falling under Case II, there may be no solution or only one solution, depending on the length of the side $B\,C$.

a. If $B\,C$ is less than the perpendicular $B\,D$, the arc $C\,C'$ will not touch the side $A\,F$ of the angle, and no triangle can be formed; hence, in this instance there is no solution.

b. If $B\,C$ is just equal to $B\,D$, the arc $C\,C'$ will touch $A\,F$ at only one point; only one triangle can be formed—a right triangle—and there is one solution.

c. If $B\,C$ is greater than $B\,D$ and less than $A\,B$, the arc $C\,C'$ will cut $A\,F$ between A and D, and also to the right of D; this gives two triangles and two solutions.

d. If $B\,C$ is just equal to $A\,B$, the arc $C\,C'$ will cut $A\,F$ at A and at a point at a distance $A\,D$ to the right of D; this gives one triangle and one solution.

e. If $B\,C$ is greater than $A\,B$, the arc $C\,C'$ will not cut $A\,F$ between A and D, but will cut $A\,F$ at a point to the

right of D; hence, but one triangle can be formed and there is but one solution.

EXAMPLE.—In Fig. 76, $AB = 88$ feet 6 inches, $BC = 57$ feet, and angle $A = 35° 0' 38''$; find the other parts.

SOLUTION.—Applying the various steps in the order given in Art. **112**, we have by rule **2**, $BD = 88$ feet 6 inches $\times \sin 35° 0' 38'' = 88.5 \times .57373 = 50.78$ feet.

$\text{Sin } BCD = \frac{BD}{BC} = \frac{50.78}{57} = .89088$; whence, angle $BCD = 62° 59' 4.3''$.

By rule **3**, $CD = 57 \times \cos 62° 59' 4.3'' = 57 \times .45423 = 25.89$ feet.

By rule **3**, $AD = 88.5 \times \cos 35° 0' 38'' = 88.5 \times .81905 = 72.49$ feet.

We now have the data necessary for obtaining the required parts of the triangle ABC. Since the angle $BCD = 62° 59' 4.3''$, the adjacent angle $ACB = 180° - 62° 59' 4.3'' = 117° 0' 55.7''$. Also, angle $ABC = 180° - (35° 0' 38'' + 117° 0' 55.7'') = 180° - 152° 1' 33.7'' = 27° 58' 26.3''$. Since $AD = 72.49$ feet and $CD = 25.89$ feet, $AC = 72.49 - 25.89 = 46.6$ feet.

For the triangle ABC', angle $C' = 62° 59' 4.3''$ and angle $ABC' = 180° - (35° 0' 38'' + 62° 59' 4.3'') = 82° 0' 17.7''$. $AC' = 72.49 + 25.89 = 98.38$ feet.

Ans. $\begin{cases} \text{Angle } C = 117° 0' 55.7''. \\ \text{Angle } B = 27° 58' 26.3''. \\ \text{Side } AC = 46.6 \text{ ft.} \\ \text{Angle } ABC' = 82° 0' 17.7''. \\ \text{Angle } C' = 62° 59' 4.3''. \\ \text{Side } AC' = 98.38 \text{ ft.} \end{cases}$

114. Case III.—*When the three sides are given, to find the angles:*

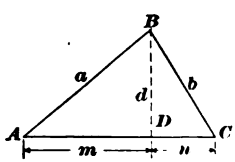

FIG. 77.

This case is solved by drawing a line from the vertex of the angle opposite the longest side, perpendicular to that side, as BD in Fig. 77. The parts m and n of the side AC are then determined from the following proportion:

$$m + n \text{ (or } AC) : a + b = a - b : m - n.$$

This gives the value of $m - n$. The value of $m + n = AC$ is already known, and from the two, m and n may be determined by the principles of arithmetic, as explained below. Having m and n, therefore, the right triangles ABD and CBD may be solved.

Having found the value of $m - n$ and knowing the value of $m + n$, the values of m and n may be determined as follows: It is a principle of arithmetic that if the sum of two numbers and their difference be given, *the greater of the two numbers is equal to one-half the sum of their sum and their difference, and the less of two numbers is equal to one-half the difference between their sum and their difference.* For example, suppose that the sum of two numbers is 22 and their difference is 8. Then, the greater number is $(22 + 8) \div 2 = 15$, and the less number is $(22 - 8) \div 2 = 7$. Therefore, letting m be the greater number and n the less number, $m + n$ represents their sum and $m - n$ their difference; whence,

$$m = \frac{(m + n) + (m - n)}{2},$$

$$n = \frac{(m + n) - (m - n)}{2}.$$

EXAMPLE.—Given, a triangle whose sides are 17 feet 3 inches, 21 feet, and 32 feet long. Find the angles.

SOLUTION.— $m + n$, the longest side, $= 32$ feet.

$a + b$, the sum of the two shorter sides, $= 21 + 17.25 = 38.25$ feet.

$a - b$, the difference of the two shorter sides, $= 3.75$ feet. Hence,

$$32 : 38.25 = 3.75 : m + n, \text{ or } m - n = \frac{38.25 \times 3.75}{32} = 4.48 \text{ feet.}$$

Then, $$m = \frac{(m + n) + (m - n)}{2} = \frac{32 + 4.48}{2} = 18.24 \text{ feet;}$$

and $$n = \frac{(m + n) - (m - n)}{2} = \frac{32 - 4.48}{2} = 13.76 \text{ feet.}$$

Now, referring to the last figure, we have, in the triangle $A\,D\,B$, side $a = 21$ feet and $m = 18.24$ feet; whence, by definition of cosine,

$$\cos A = \frac{18.24}{21} = .86857, \text{ or } A = 29^\circ\ 42'\ 25.7''.$$

In triangle $C\,B\,D$, side $b = 17.25$ feet and $n = 13.76$ feet; whence,

$$\cos C = \frac{13.76}{17.25} = .79768, \text{ or } C = 37^\circ\ 5'\ 26.7''.$$

Angle $A\,B\,C = 180^\circ - (29^\circ\ 42'\ 25.7'' + 37^\circ\ 5'\ 26.7'') = 113^\circ\ 12'\ 7.6''$.

$$\text{Ans.} \begin{cases} \text{Angle } A = 29^\circ\ 42'\ 25.7''. \\ \text{Angle } B = 113^\circ\ 12'\ 7.6''. \\ \text{Angle } C = 37^\circ\ 5'\ 26.7''. \end{cases}$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. Given, an oblique triangle ABC, in which side $AB = 21$ feet, angle $A = 22° 10' 16''$, and angle $B = 78° 24' 24''$. Find the other parts.

Ans. $\begin{cases} \text{Angle } C = 79° 25' 20''. \\ AC = 20.93 \text{ ft.} \\ BC = 8.06 \text{ ft.} \end{cases}$

2. Given, a triangle ABC, in which $AB = 32$ inches, angle $B = 54° 16'$, and angle $C = 58° 18' 9''$. Find the other parts.

Ans. $\begin{cases} \text{Angle } A = 67° 25' 51''. \\ AC = 30.53 \text{ in.} \\ BC = 34.73 \text{ in.} \end{cases}$

3. In a triangle ABC, $AB = 20$ feet 6 inches, $BC = 16$ feet, and angle $B = 46° 40' 42''$. Find the values of the other parts.

Ans. $\begin{cases} \text{Angle } A = 50° 42' 51''. \\ \text{Angle } C = 82° 36' 27''. \\ AC = 15.04 \text{ ft.} \end{cases}$

4. In a triangle ABC, $AC = 100$ feet, $BC = 60$ feet, and angle $A = 20°$. Solve the triangle.

Ans. $\begin{cases} \text{Angle } B = 34° 45' 7.5'', \text{ or} \\ \quad \text{angle } B = 145° 14' 52.5''. \\ \text{Angle } C = 125° 14' 52.5''. \\ AB = 143.268 \text{ ft., or } AB \\ \quad = 44.67 \text{ ft.} \end{cases}$

5. In a triangle ABC, $AB = 98$ inches, $BC = 140$ inches, and $AC = 210$ inches. Compute the angles A, B, and C.

Ans. $\begin{cases} A = 34° 2' 52.5''. \\ B = 122° 52' 40.2''. \\ C = 23° 4' 27.3''. \end{cases}$

MENSURATION.

115. Mensuration is that part of geometry which treats of the measurement of lines, surfaces, and solids.

MENSURATION OF PLANE SURFACES.

116. The **area** of a surface is expressed by the number of unit squares it will contain.

117. A **unit square** is the square whose side is equal in length to the unit. For example, if the unit is 1 inch, the unit square is the square whose sides measure 1 inch in length, and the area would be expressed by the number of square inches that the surface contains. If the unit were

1 foot, the unit square would measure 1 foot on each side, and the area would be the number of square feet that the surface contains, etc. The square that measures 1 inch on a side is called a **square inch,** and the one that measures 1 foot on a side is called a **square foot.** Square inch and square foot are abbreviated to sq. in. and sq. ft., or are indicated by □″ and □′.

THE TRIANGLE.

118. Rule.—*The area of any triangle equals one-half the product of the base and the altitude.*

Letting b be the base, h the altitude, and A the area,

$$A = \frac{bh}{2}.$$

If the triangle is a right triangle, one of the short sides may be taken as the base, and the other short side as the altitude; hence, *the area of a right triangle is equal to one-half the product of the two short sides.*

EXAMPLE.—What is the area of a triangle whose base is 18 feet and altitude 7 feet 9 inches?

SOLUTION.— 9 inches $= \frac{9}{12}$ foot $= \frac{3}{4}$ foot; hence,

$$A = \frac{bh}{2} = \frac{18 \times 7\frac{3}{4}}{2} = 69\frac{3}{4} \text{ sq. ft. Ans.}$$

119. The area of any triangle may be found, when the length of each side is known, by means of the following formula, in which a, b, and c represent the lengths of the sides, s half the sum of the lengths, and A the area of the triangle:

$$A = \sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)}, \text{ where } s = \frac{a+b+c}{2}.$$

EXAMPLE.—What is the area of a triangle having two sides 19.8 feet long and one side 28 feet long?

SOLUTION.—It is immaterial which side is called a, b, or c. Applying the formula, $s = \frac{a+b+c}{2} = \frac{28 + 19.8 + 19.8}{2} = 33.8$, the half sum; taking b and c as the short sides, $s - a = 33.8 - 28 = 5.8$ and $s - b$ and $s - c$ are each $33.8 - 19.8 = 14$. Then,

$$A = \sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)} = \sqrt{33.8 \times 5.8 \times 14 \times 14}$$
$$= 196+ \text{ sq. ft. Ans.}$$

THE QUADRILATERAL.

120. A **parallelogram** is a quadrilateral whose opposite sides are parallel. There are four kinds of parallelograms: the *square*, the *rectangle*, the *rhombus*, and the *rhomboid*.

FIG. 78.

121. A **rectangle,** Fig. 78, is a parallelogram whose angles are all right angles.

122. A **square,** Fig. 79, is a rectangle, all of whose sides are equal.

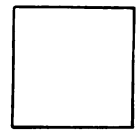

FIG. 79.

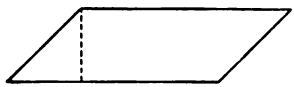

FIG. 80.

123. A **rhomboid,** Fig. 80, is a parallelogram whose opposite sides only are equal and whose angles are not right angles.

124. A **rhombus,** Fig. 81, is a parallelogram having equal sides and whose angles are not right angles.

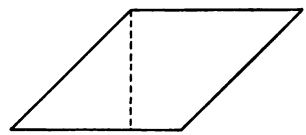

FIG. 81.

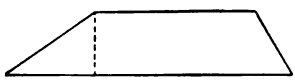

FIG. 82.

125. A **trapezoid,** Fig. 82, is a quadrilateral which has only two of its sides parallel.

126. A **trapezium,** Fig. 83, is a quadrilateral having no two sides parallel.

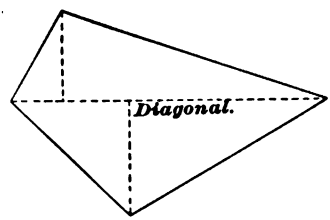

FIG. 83.

127. The **altitude** of a parallelogram, or of a trapezoid, is the perpendicular distance between the parallel sides. See dotted line in Figs. 80, 81, and 82.

128. A **diagonal** is a straight line drawn from the vertex of any angle of a quadrilateral to the vertex of the angle opposite; a diagonal divides a quadrilateral into two triangles. See Figs. 78 and 83.

A diagonal divides a parallelogram into two *equal* and *similar* triangles.

129. To find the area of a parallelogram :

Rule.—*The area of any parallelogram equals the product of the base and the altitude.*

Let b be the base, h the altitude, and A the area; then,

$$A = b\,h.$$

EXAMPLE.—What is the area of a parallelogram whose base is 12 feet and altitude $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet ?

SOLUTION.—Applying the formula, $A = bh = 12 \times 7\frac{1}{2} = 90$ sq. ft. Ans.

If the area and one dimension are given, the other may be found by dividing the area by the known dimension. If the parallelogram is a square, and its area is given, the length of a side is found by extracting the square root of the area ; that is, $b = \sqrt{A}$.

130. To find the area of a trapezoid :

Rule.—*The area of a trapezoid equals one-half the sum of the parallel sides multiplied by the altitude.*

Let a and b represent the lengths of the parallel sides and h the altitude; then,

$$A = \left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)h.$$

EXAMPLE.—What is the area of a trapezoid whose parallel sides are 9 feet and 15 feet and whose altitude is 6 feet 7 inches ?

SOLUTION.— 6 feet 7 inches $= 6\frac{7}{12}$ feet. Using the formula,

$$A = \left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)h = \frac{9+15}{2} \times 6\tfrac{7}{12} = 79 \text{ sq. ft. Ans.}$$

THE CIRCLE.

131. To find the circumference, diameter, or radius of a circle:

Rule.—*The circumference of a circle equals the diameter multiplied by 3.1416.*

Rule.—*The diameter of a circle equals the circumference divided by 3.1416; the radius equals the circumference divided by 2 × 3.1416.*

Let d be the diameter, r the radius, and c the circumference,

$$c = \pi d = 2 \pi r;$$

and

$$d = \frac{c}{\pi}; \text{ or } r = \frac{c}{2 \pi}.$$

EXAMPLE 1.—What is the circumference of a circle whose diameter is 15 inches?

SOLUTION.—Using the formula, $c = \pi d = 3.1416 \times 15 = 47.12$ in. Ans.

EXAMPLE 2.—What is the diameter of a circle whose circumference is 65.973 inches?

SOLUTION.—Using the formula, $d = \frac{c}{\pi} = \frac{65.973}{3.1416} = 21$ in. Ans.

The number 3.1416 is the ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter; it is represented very frequently by the Greek letter π, pronounced "pi." Its value has been calculated to over 700 decimal places, but the value here given is the one most generally used, four decimal places being sufficient for all practical purposes. The values $\frac{1}{4}\pi$, or .7854, and $\frac{1}{6}\pi$, or .5236, are frequently used farther on.

132. To find the length of an arc of a circle:

Rule.—*The length of an arc of a circle equals the circumference of the circle of which the arc is a part multiplied by the number of degrees in the arc and the product divided by 360.*

Let l be the length of arc, c the circumference, d the diameter of the circle, and n the number of degrees in the arc; then,

$$l = \frac{\pi d n}{360}.$$

EXAMPLE.—What is the length of an arc of 24°, the radius of the circle being 18 inches?

SOLUTION.— $18 \times 2 = 36$ inches, the diameter of the circle. Using the formula, $l = \frac{\pi d n}{360} = \frac{3.1416 \times 36 \times 24}{360} = 7.54$ in., length of arc. Ans.

133. When only the chord of the arc and the height of segment (that is, $A B$ and $C D$, Fig. 84) are given, the following closely approximate formula may be used:

Let c be the length of chord, h the height of segment, and l the length of arc; then,

$$l = \frac{4\sqrt{c^2 + 4h^2} - c}{3}.$$

EXAMPLE.—If $A B$, Fig. 84, is 5 feet and $C D$ is 1 foot, what is the length of arc $A D B$?

SOLUTION.—Applying the formula,

$$l = \frac{4\sqrt{c^2 + 4h^2} - c}{3} = \frac{4\sqrt{25 + 4} - 5}{3} = 5.51 \text{ ft. Ans.}$$

When the quotient obtained by dividing the chord by the height is less than 4.8, that is, when $\frac{c}{h}$ is less than 4.8, the formula does not work well, the results not being sufficiently exact. In such a case, bisect the arc and then apply the formula.

134. To find the area of a circle:

Rule.—*Square the diameter and multiply by .7854; or, square the radius and multiply by 3.1416.*

Let A be the area; then,

$$A = \tfrac{1}{4}\pi d^2 = .7854\, d^2; \text{ or, } A = \pi r^2 = 3.1416\, r^2.$$

EXAMPLE.—What is the area of a circle whose diameter is 15 inches?

SOLUTION.— $15^2 = 225$. Using the formula, $A = .7854\, d^2 = .7854 \times 225 = 176.72$ sq. in. Ans.

135. Given the area of a circle, to find its diameter:

Rule.—*Divide the area by .7854 and extract the square root of the quotient.*

Expressed as a formula, the rule is

$$d = \sqrt{\frac{A}{.7854}} = 1.1284\sqrt{A} = \sqrt{\frac{4A}{\pi}}.$$

EXAMPLE.—The area of a circle = 17,671.5 square inches. What is its diameter in feet?

SOLUTION.—Using the formula,

$$d = \sqrt{\frac{A}{.7854}} = \sqrt{\frac{17,671.5}{.7854}} = 1.1284\sqrt{17,671.5} = 150 \text{ inches.}$$

$$\frac{150}{12} = 12\tfrac{1}{2} \text{ ft. diameter. Ans.}$$

136. To find the area of a flat circular ring:

Rule.—*Subtract the area of the smaller circle from that of the larger; the difference is the area of the ring.*

Let d equal the longer diameter, d_1 the shorter diameter, and A the area of ring; then,

$$A = .7854\,d^2 - .7854\,d_1^2 = .7854\,(d^2 - d_1^2).$$

EXAMPLE.—What is the area of a ring whose longer and shorter diameters are 6.5 feet and 4 feet, respectively?

SOLUTION.—Applying the formula,

$$A = .7854\ (6.5^2 - 4^2) = .7854 \times 26.25 = 20.62 \text{ sq. ft. Ans.}$$

If one diameter and the area of the ring are known, the other diameter may be found by adding to or subtracting from the area of the given circle that of the ring, and finding the diameter corresponding to the resulting area.

137. To find the area of a sector:

Rule.—*Divide the number of degrees in the arc of the sector by 360. Multiply the result by the area of the circle of which the sector is a part.*

Let n be the number of degrees in the arc, A the area of circle, d the diameter of circle, and A' the area of sector; then,

$$A' = \frac{nA}{360} = .0021817\,d^2 n.$$

EXAMPLE.—The number of degrees in the angle formed by drawing radii from the center of a circle to the extremities of the arc of the circle is 75. The diameter of the circle is 12 inches; what is the area of the sector?

SOLUTION.— $12^2 \times .7854 = 113.1$ square inches, nearly, area of circle. Applying the formula,

$$A' = \frac{n\,A}{360} = \frac{75 \times 113.1}{360} = 23.56 \text{ sq. in. Ans.}$$

138. If the length of arc and radius of a sector are given, the following rule may be used:

Rule.—*The area of a sector is equal to one-half the product of the radius and length of arc.*

Let l be the length of arc, r the radius, and A' the area; then,

$$A' = \frac{l\,r}{2}.$$

EXAMPLE.—If the radius of an arc is 5 feet and the length of arc is 4 feet, what is the area of the sector?

SOLUTION.—Applying the formula,

$$A' = \frac{l\,r}{2} = \frac{4 \times 5}{2} = 10 \text{ sq. ft. Ans.}$$

139. To find the area of a segment of a circle:

Rule.—*Draw radii from the center of the circle to the extremities of the arc of the segment; find the area of the sector thus formed, subtract from this the area of the triangle formed by the radii and the chord of the arc of the segment; the result is the area of the segment.*

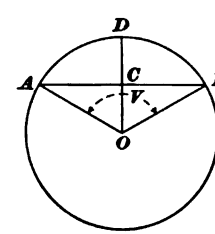

FIG. 84.

In problems requiring the area of the segment, the chord $A\,B$, Fig. 84, may be given, or the height of the segment $C\,D$, or the angle V; if any one of these three is given and the radius of the circle is known, the area can be found.

Also, if any two are given, the radius can be found.

EXAMPLE 1.—If the diameter of the circle is 10 inches and the chord of the segment is 7 inches, what is the area of the segment?

SOLUTION.—In the above figure, suppose that the chord $AB = 7$ inches and the diameter $= 10$ inches; draw OA, OB, and a radius perpendicular to the chord, thus dividing AB into two equal parts (see Art. **70**). The triangle AOB is now divided into two equal right triangles ACO and BCO, in which the hypotenuse = radius $= \frac{10}{2} = 5$ inches, and one side $AC = BC = \frac{7}{2}$, or $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

$$\text{Sin } COB = \frac{CB}{OB} = \frac{3\frac{1}{2}}{5} = .70000, \text{ and angle } COB = 44° \ 26', \text{ nearly.}$$

Angle $AOB = 44° \ 26' \times 2 = 88° \ 52'$. $CO = OB \times \cos COB = 5 \times .71407 = 3.57$ inches.

$$\text{Area of sector} = 10^2 \times .7854 \times \frac{88\frac{52}{60}}{360} = 19.39 \text{ sq. in., nearly.}$$

$$\text{Area of triangle} = \frac{7 \times 3.57}{2} = 12.5 \text{ sq. in., nearly.}$$

$19.39 - 12.5 = 6.89$ sq. in., the area of segment. Ans.

EXAMPLE 2.—Given the chord of the arc of a segment $= 7$ inches and the height of the segment $= 1.43$ inches, to find the radius.

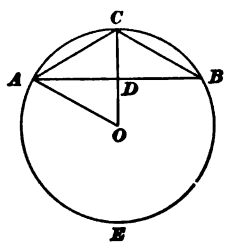

FIG. 85.

SOLUTION.—Suppose that in Fig. 85, $ACBE$ is a circle struck with the required radius, that the chord $AB = 7$ inches, and that the height CD of the segment $= 1.43$ inches. Join C with A and B, and the right triangle $ADC = BDC$.

$$\text{Tan } CBD = \frac{CD}{BD} = \frac{1.43}{3.5} = .40857.$$

Angle $CBD = 22° \ 13\frac{1}{2}'$, nearly.

Since CBD or its equal CBA is an inscribed angle (see Art. **66**), it is measured by one-half the intercepted arc AC; hence, the number of degrees in arc $AC = 22° \ 13\frac{1}{2}' \times 2 = 44° \ 27'$, or the number of degrees in the angle AOC.

In the right triangle ADO,

$$AO = \frac{\text{side opposite}}{\sin ADO} = \frac{AD}{\sin AOC} = \frac{3.5}{.70029} = 5 \text{ in., nearly. Ans.}$$

NOTE.—The principles explained in the two preceding examples may be used in solving problems relating to length of radius, chord, sub-chord (chord, as AC, of half the arc AB), height of segment, etc. These all involve the principle of the right triangle.

REGULAR POLYGONS.

140. A **regular polygon** may be divided into as many equal isosceles triangles as there are sides, by drawing lines from the center to the angles. Each of the angles formed at the center is equal to 360° divided by the number of sides.

To find the area of a regular polygon:

Rule.—*Multiply together the number of sides, the square of the length of a side, and the cotangent of* **one-half** *the central angle, and divide the product by 4. The result will be the area of the regular polygon.*

Let A be the area, n the number of sides, l the length of a side, and x *one-half* the central angle included between two lines drawn from the center to the extremities of a side; then,

$$A = \frac{n\,l^2 \cot x}{4}.$$

EXAMPLE.—What is the area of a regular decagon having sides 5 feet long?

SOLUTION.—Here n is 10; l is 5 feet; x is $\frac{360}{10} \div 2 = 18°$; cot 18° = 3.07768; whence,

$$A = \frac{n\,l^2 \cot x}{4} = \frac{10 \times 5 \times 5 \times 3.07768}{4} = 192.35 \text{ sq. ft. Ans.}$$

141. The area of a regular polygon whose sides are known may also be found in the following manner:

Rule.—*Square the length of a side and multiply by the proper multiplier in the subjoined table.*

Name.	No. Sides.	Multiplier.	Name.	No. Sides.	Multiplier.
Equilateral Triangle.....	3	0.4330	Octagon.....	8	4.8284
Square.....	4	1.0000	Nonagon.....	9	6.1818
Pentagon.....	5	1.7205	Decagon.....	10	7.6942
Hexagon.....	6	2.5981	Undecagon....	11	9.3656
Heptagon.....	7	3.6339	Dodecagon....	12	11.1960

EXAMPLE.—What is the area of a regular octagon having sides 8 feet long?

SOLUTION.— $8^2 = 64$; multiplying 64 by the corresponding tabular number, 4.8284, the area is found to be $64 \times 4.8284 = 309.02$ sq. ft. Ans.

THE ELLIPSE.

142. An **ellipse** is a plane figure bounded by a curved line, to any point of which the sum of the distances from two fixed points within, called the **foci,** is equal to the sum of the distances from the foci to any other point on the curve.

In Fig. 86, let A and B be the foci and let C and D be any two points on the perimeter. Then, according to the above definition, $AC + CB = AD + DB$, and both these sums are also equal to the long diameter FE.

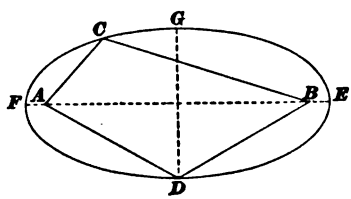

FIG. 86.

The foci may be located from G or D as a center by striking arcs cutting FE at A and B, using a radius equal to one-half of FE.

The long diameter of an ellipse, as FE, Fig. 86, is called the **major axis;** the short diameter, as GD, is called the **minor axis.**

143. To find the periphery (perimeter) of an ellipse: There is no exact method, but the following formula gives values very nearly exact. In the formula,

$\pi = 3.1416$;
$C =$ periphery;
$a =$ half the major axis;
$b =$ half the minor axis;

$$D = \frac{a-b}{a+b}.$$

$$C = \pi\,(a+b)\,\frac{64 - 3\,D^4}{64 - 16\,D^2}.$$

EXAMPLE.—What is the periphery of an ellipse whose axes are 10 inches and 4 inches?

SOLUTION.—Applying the formula, $a = 5$, $b = 2$, $D = \frac{5-2}{5+2} = \frac{3}{7}$.

Then, $C = 3.1416\,(5+2)\,\frac{64 - 3(\frac{3}{7})^4}{64 - 16(\frac{3}{7})^2} = 23.014$ in. Ans.

144. To find the area of an ellipse:

Rule.—*The area of an ellipse is equal to the product of its two diameters multiplied by .7854.*

Let A be the longer diameter, or major axis; B the shorter diameter, or minor axis; and S the area; then,

$$S = \tfrac{1}{4}\pi A B = .7854\, A B.$$

EXAMPLE.—What is the area of an ellipse whose diameters are 10 inches and 6 inches?

SOLUTION.—Applying the formula, $S = .7854\, A B = .7854 \times 10 \times 6 = 47.12$ sq. in. area. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. What is the area in square feet of a rhombus whose base is 84 inches and whose altitude is 3 feet? Ans. 21 sq. ft.

2. One side of a room is 16 feet long. If the floor contains 240 square feet, what is the length of the other side? Ans. 15 ft.

3. How many square feet in a board 12 feet long, 18 inches wide at one end and 12 inches wide at the other end? Ans. 15 sq. ft.

4. How many square yards of plastering will be required for the ceiling and walls of a room 10 ft. × 15 ft. and 9 feet high? The room contains one door $3\frac{1}{2}$ ft. × 7 ft., three windows $3\frac{1}{2}$ × 6 ft., and a baseboard 8 inches high. Ans. 53.5 sq. yd.

5. What is the area of a triangle whose base is 10 feet 6 inches long and whose altitude is 18 feet? Ans. 94.5 sq. ft.

6. The area of a triangle is 16 square inches. If the altitude is 4 inches, what does the base measure? Ans. 8 in.

7. The upper side of a trapezium is 16 inches long and the lower side 14 inches. If the figure be divided into two triangles by a diagonal whose altitudes, drawn from their vertexes to the two given sides as bases, are 17 inches and 3 inches, respectively, what is the area of the trapezium? Ans. 157 sq. in.

8. Find the area of a circle 2 feet 3 inches in diameter. Ans. 3.976 sq. ft.

9. A carriage wheel was observed to make $71\frac{3}{8}$ turns while going 800 yards. What was its diameter? Ans. 4 ft., nearly.

10. Required, the diameter of a circle whose area is 2,004 square inches. Ans. 50.51 in.

11. Required, the area of a regular pentagon inscribed in a circle whose diameter is 20 inches. Ans. 237.77 sq. in.

12. The number of degrees in the angle formed by drawing radii from the center of a circle to the extremities of the arc of the circle is 84. The diameter of the circle is 17 inches; what is the area of the sector? Ans. 52.96 sq. in.

13. Given, the chord of the arc of a segment = 24 inches and the height of the segment = 6.5 inches, to find (*a*) the diameter of the circle, and (*b*) the area of the segment. Ans. $\begin{cases} (a) & 28.654 \text{ in.} \\ (b) & 109.87 \text{ sq. in.} \end{cases}$

14. (*a*) What is the perimeter of an ellipse whose axes are 15 inches and 9 inches, and (*b*) what is the area? Ans. $\begin{cases} (a) & 38.29 \text{ in.} \\ (b) & 106.03 \text{ sq. in.} \end{cases}$

145. To find the area of any plane figure bounded by straight or curved lines:

Rule.—*The area of any plane figure may be found by dividing it into triangles, quadrilaterals, circles or parts of circles, and ellipses, finding the area of each part separately and adding them together.*

EXAMPLE 1.—The diagonal of a trapezium is 15 feet. The altitudes drawn from the vertexes of the two triangles to this diagonal as a base are 6 feet 8 inches and 4 feet 9 inches, respectively. What is the area of the trapezium?

SOLUTION.— 8 inches $= \frac{8}{12}$ foot $= \frac{2}{3}$ foot. $\frac{15 \times 6\frac{2}{3}}{2} = 50$ square feet = the area of one triangle.

9 inches $= \frac{9}{12}$ foot $= \frac{3}{4}$ foot. $\frac{15 \times 4\frac{3}{4}}{2} = 35.63$ square feet = the area of the other triangle.

The area of the trapezium equals $50 + 35.63 = 85.63$ sq. ft. Ans.

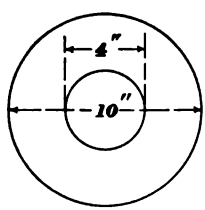

FIG. 87.

EXAMPLE 2.—What is the area of a flat circular ring, Fig. 87, whose outside diameter equals 10 inches and whose inside diameter equals 4 inches?

SOLUTION.—The area of the large circle $= 10^2 \times .7854 = 78.54$ square inches; the area of the small circle $= 4^2 \times .7854 = 12.57$ square inches.

$78.54 - 12.57 = 65.97$ sq. in., or the area. **Ans.**

EXAMPLE 3.—What is the exact area in square inches of Fig. 88?

SOLUTION. — Divide the figure into rectangles, triangles, and parts of a circle, as shown by the dotted lines, then the total area equals 8-inch circle — 4-inch circle — segment AB + rectangle $ABGF$ + 2 times the triangle CDE + 2 times the triangle RST + 2 times the rectangle $DESR$ + the rectangle $HIKL$ + 2 times the rectangle $LMNP$ + 2 times the triangle MON.

$8^2 \times .7854 = 50.27 \square''$.
$4^2 \times .7854 = 12.57 \square''$.

The chord $AB = 3$ inches and the radius of the circle $= 4$ inches; hence, the sine of one-half the angle at center $= \frac{1.5}{4} = .375$, and one-half the angle at center $= 22° \ 1' \ 27''$, or angle at center $= 44° \ 2' \ 54'' = 44.05°$. Area of sector $= 50.27 \times \frac{44.05}{360} = 6.15 \square''$.

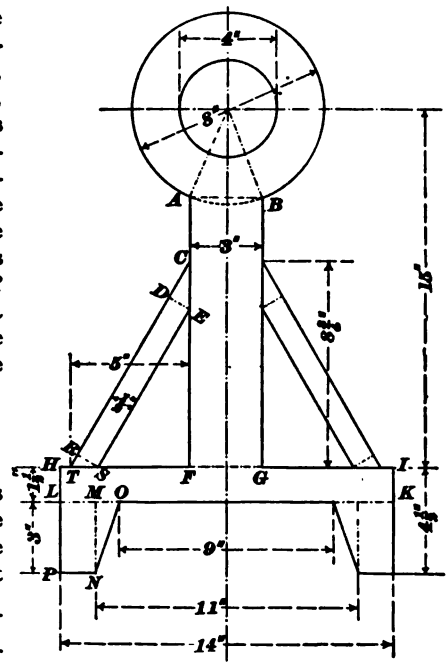

FIG. 88.

The altitude of the triangle $= 4 \times \cos 22° \ 1' \ 27'' = 3.71$ inches.

The area of the triangle $= \frac{3.71 \times 3}{2} = 5.56 \square''$.

The area of the segment $= 6.15 - 5.56 = 0.59 \square''$.

The area of the rectangle $ABGF = (15 - 3.71) \times 3 = 33.87 \square''$.

In the triangle CDE,

$$\tan C = \frac{5}{8\frac{3}{4}} = .57143 = \frac{DE}{CD} = \frac{.5}{CD}.$$

Hence, $$CD = \frac{.5}{.57143} = .875 \text{ inch.}$$

The area of the triangle $CDE = \frac{.875 \times .5}{2} = .22 \square''$, nearly.

$.22 \times 2 = .44 \square'' =$ twice the area of the triangle CDE. Since, in the triangle RST, RS is perpendicular to CR and TS is

perpendicular to CF, the angle S = angle C; hence, tan $S = .57143 = \frac{RT}{SR} = \frac{RT}{.5}$; therefore, $RT = .57143 \times .5 = .29$ inch, nearly.

Area $RST = \frac{.29 \times .5}{2} = .07 \square''$, nearly.

Twice the area of the triangle $RST = .07 \times 2 = .14 \square''$.

Since tan $C = .57143$, $C = 29° 44' 42''$.

In the rectangle $DESR$, $DR = CT - (CD + RT)$. But $CT = \frac{5}{\sin 29° 44' 42''} = \frac{5}{.49614} = 10.08$ inches.

$CD + RT = .875 + .29 = 1.16$. $DR = 10.08 - 1.16 = 8.92$. $8.92 \div 2 = 4.46 \square''$ = the area of $DESR$.

Twice the area of the rectangle $DESR = 4.46 \times 2 = 8.92 \square''$.

The area of the rectangle $HIKL = 14 \times 1\frac{1}{2} = 21 \square''$.

The area of the rectangle $LMNP = \left(\frac{14 - 11}{2}\right) \times 3 = 1\frac{1}{2} \times 3 = 4\frac{1}{2} \square''$; and $4\frac{1}{2} \times 2 = 9 \square''$.

The area of the triangle $MON = \left(\frac{11 - 9}{2} \times 3\right) \div 2 = 1.5 \square''$.

Twice the area of the triangle $MON = 1.5$ inches $\times 2 = 3 \square''$.

Then, $50.27 + 33.87 + 0.44 + 0.14 + 8.92 + 21 + 9 + 3 = 126.64 \square''$, $12.57 + 0.59 = 13.16 \square''$. $126.64 - 13.16 = 113.48 \square''$.

Therefore, the area of the figure $= 113.48 \square''$. Ans.

THE MENSURATION OF SOLIDS.

146. A **solid,** or body, has three dimensions: length, breadth, and thickness. The sides which enclose it are called the **faces** and their intersections are called **edges.**

147. The **entire surface** of a solid is the area of the whole outside of the solid, including the ends.

148. The **convex surface** of a solid is the same as the entire surface, except that the areas of the ends are not included.

149. The **volume** of a solid is expressed by the number of times it will contain another volume, called the unit of volume. Instead of the word *volume*, the expression **cubical contents** is frequently used.

THE PRISM AND CYLINDER.

150. A **prism** is a solid whose ends are equal polygons and parallel to each other and whose sides are parallelograms.

151. A **parallelopipedon,** Fig. 89, is a prism whose bases (ends) are parallelograms.

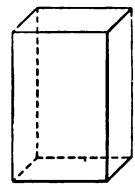

FIG. 89.

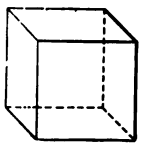

FIG. 90.

152. A **cube,** Fig. 90, is a parallelopipedon whose faces and ends are squares.

153. The cube, whose edges are equal to the unit of length, is taken as the unit of volume when finding the volume of a solid.

Thus, if the unit of length is 1 inch, the unit of volume will be the cube each of whose edges measures 1 inch, or 1 *cubic inch;* and the number of cubic inches the solid contains will be its volume. If the unit of length is 1 foot, the unit of volume will be 1 *cubic foot*, etc. Cubic inch, cubic foot, and cubic yard are abbreviated to cu. in., cu. ft., and cu. yd., respectively.

154. Prisms take their names from their bases. Thus, a *triangular prism* is one whose bases are triangles; a *pentagonal prism* is one whose bases are pentagons, etc.

155. A **cylinder,** Fig. 91, is a round body of uniform diameter with circles for its ends.

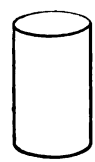

FIG. 91.

156. A **right prism,** or **right cylinder,** is one whose center line (axis) is perpendicular to its base. In this section all of the solids will be considered as having their center lines perpendicular to their bases.

157. The **altitude** of a prism or cylinder is the perpendicular distance between its two ends.

158. To find the area of the convex surface of any right prism, or right cylinder.

Rule.—*Multiply the perimeter of the base by the altitude.*

Let p be the perimeter of the base, h the altitude, and S the convex surface; then,

$$S = p\,h.$$

EXAMPLE 1.—In a right prism whose base is a square, one side of which is 9 inches and whose altitude is 16 inches, what is its convex area?

SOLUTION.— $9 \times 4 = 36 =$ the perimeter of the base. Applying the formula,

$S = p\,h = 36 \times 16 = 576\,\square''$, the convex area. Ans.

To find the entire area, add the areas of the two ends to the convex area:

EXAMPLE 2.—What is the entire area of the parallelopipedon mentioned in the last question?

SOLUTION.—The area of one end $= 9^2 = 81\,\square''$. $81 \times 2 = 162\,\square''$, or the area of both ends. $576 + 162 = 738\,\square''$, the entire area of the parallelopipedon. Ans.

EXAMPLE 3.—What is the entire area of a right cylinder whose base is 16 inches in diameter and whose altitude is 24 inches?

SOLUTION.— $16 \times 3.1416 = 50.27$ inches, or the perimeter (circumference) of the base. $50.27 \times 24 = 1{,}206.48\,\square''$, the convex area.

$16^2 \times .7854 \times 2 = 402.12\,\square''$, the area of the ends.

$1{,}206.48 + 402.12 = 1{,}608.6\,\square''$, the entire area. Ans.

159. To find the volume of a right prism, or cylinder:

Rule.—*The volume of any right prism or cylinder equals the area of the base multiplied by the altitude.*

Let A be the area of the base, h the altitude, and V the volume; then,

$$V = A\,h.$$

If the given prism is a cube, the three dimensions are all equal and the volume equals the cube of one of the edges. Hence, if the volume is given, the length of an edge is found by extracting the cube root.

If the volume and area are given, the altitude $= \frac{V}{A}$. If the cylinder or prism is hollow, the volume is equal to the area of the ring or base multiplied by the altitude.

EXAMPLE 1.—What is the volume of a rectangular prism whose base is 6 in. $\times$ 4 in. and whose altitude is 12 inches?

SOLUTION.—The base of a rectangular prism is a rectangle. Hence, $6 \times 4 = 24\,\square''$, the area of the base. Applying the formula $V = A\,h = 24 \times 12 = 288$ cu. in., or the volume. Ans.

EXAMPLE 2.—What is the volume of a cube whose edge is 9 inches?

SOLUTION.— $9^3 = 9 \times 9 \times 9 = 729$ cu. in., the volume. Ans.

EXAMPLE 3.—What is the volume of a cylinder whose base is 7 inches in diameter and whose altitude is 11 inches?

SOLUTION.— $7^2 \times .7854 = 38.48\,\square''$, the area of the base. Applying the formula, $V = A\,h = 38.48 \times 11 = 423.28$ cu. in., the volume. Ans.

THE PYRAMID AND CONE.

160. A **pyramid,** Fig. 92, is a solid whose base is a polygon and whose sides are triangles uniting at a common point called the **vertex.**

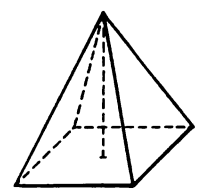

FIG. 92.

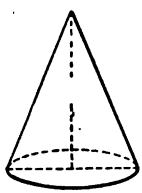

FIG. 93.

161. A **cone,** Fig. 93, is a solid whose base is a circle and whose convex surface tapers uniformly to a point called the **vertex.**

162. The **altitude** of a pyramid or cone is the perpendicular distance from the vertex to the base.

163. The **slant height** of a *pyramid* is a line drawn from the vertex perpendicular to one of the sides of the base. The slant height of a *cone* is any straight line drawn from the vertex to the circumference of the base.

164. To find the area of a right pyramid or right cone:

Rule.—*The convex area of a right pyramid or cone equals the perimeter of the base multiplied by one-half the slant height.*

Let p be the perimeter, s the slant height, and C the convex area; then,

$$C = \frac{ps}{2}.$$

EXAMPLE 1.—What is the convex area of a pentagonal pyramid, if each side of the base measures 6 inches and the slant height equals 14 inches?

SOLUTION.—The base of the pentagonal pyramid is a pentagon, and, consequently, it has five sides.

$6 \times 5 = 30$ inches, or the perimeter of the base.

Applying the formula,

$$C = \frac{ps}{2} = \frac{30 \times 14}{2} = 210 \square'', \text{ the convex area. Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE 2.—What is the entire area of a right cone whose slant height is 17 inches and whose base is 8 inches in diameter?

SOLUTION.— $8 \times 3.1416 = 25.1328$ inches, the perimeter.

$$25.1328 \times \tfrac{17}{2} = 213.63 \square'', \text{ the convex area.}$$
$$8^2 \times .7854 = 50.27 \square'', \text{ the area of base.}$$
$$\textit{Sum} = 263.90 \square'', \text{ the entire area. Ans.}$$

165. To find the volume of a right pyramid or cone:

Rule.—*The volume of a right pyramid or cone equals the area of the base multiplied by one-third of the altitude.*

Let A be the area of the base, h the altitude, and V the volume; then,

$$V = \frac{A\,h}{3}.$$

If the base of the pyramid is a regular polygon, its area may be found by the rules in Arts. **140** and **141.**

EXAMPLE 1.—What is the volume of a triangular pyramid, the edges of whose base each measure 6 inches and whose altitude is 8 inches?

SOLUTION.—The base is an equilateral triangle, hence, applying the rule in Art. **141,** the area is $6^2 \times .433 = 15.59\,\square''$. Applying the formula,

$$V = \frac{A\,h}{3} = \frac{15.59 \times 8}{3} = 41.57 \text{ cu. in. Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE 2.—What is the volume of a cone whose altitude is 18 inches and whose base is 14 inches in diameter?

SOLUTION.— $14^2 \times .7854 = 153.94\,\square''$, the area of the base. Applying the formula,

$$V = \frac{A\,h}{3} = \frac{153.94 \times 18}{3} = 923.64 \text{ cu. in., the volume. Ans.}$$

THE FRUSTUM OF A PYRAMID OR CONE.

166. If a pyramid be cut by a plane parallel to the base, as in Fig. 94, so as to form two parts, the lower part is called the **frustum** of the pyramid.

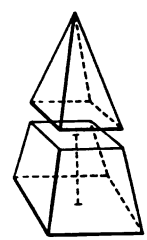

FIG. 94.

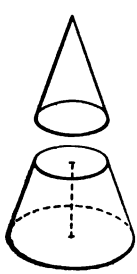

FIG. 95.

167. If a cone be cut in a similar manner, as in Fig. 95, the lower part is called the **frustum** of the cone.

168. The upper end of the frustum of a pyramid or cone is called the **upper base,** and the lower end the **lower base.** The **altitude** of a frustum is the perpendicular distance between the bases.

169. To find the convex area of a frustum of a right pyramid or right cone:

Rule.—*The convex area of a frustum of a right pyramid or right cone equals one-half the sum of the perimeters of its bases multiplied by the slant height of the frustum.*

Let p be the perimeter of the lower base, p' that of the upper base, s the slant height, and C the convex area; then,

$$C = \left(\frac{p + p'}{2}\right) s.$$

EXAMPLE 1.—Given, the frustum of a triangular pyramid, in which each side of the lower base measures 10 inches, each side of the upper base measures 6 inches, and whose slant height is 9 inches; find the convex area.

SOLUTION.— 10 inches $\times$ 3 = 30 inches, the perimeter of the lower base.

6 inches $\times$ 3 = 18 inches, the perimeter of the upper base.

Applying the formula,

$$C = \left(\frac{p + p'}{2}\right) s = \frac{30 + 18}{2} \times 9 = 216 \square'', \text{ the convex area. Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE 2.—If the diameters of the two bases of a frustum of a cone are 12 inches and 8 inches, respectively, and the slant height is 12 inches, what is the entire area of the frustum?

SOLUTION.— $\frac{(12 \times 3.1416) + (8 \times 3.1416)}{2} \times 12 = 376.99 \square''$, the area of the convex surface.

$$8^2 \times .7854 = 50.27 \square''.$$
$$12^2 \times .7854 = 113.1 \square''.$$
$$113.1 + 50.27 = 163.37 \square'', \text{ the area of the two ends.}$$
$$376.99 + 163.37 = 540.36 \llcorner'', \text{ the entire area of the frustum. Ans.}$$

170. To find the volume of the frustum of a pyramid or cone:

Rule.—*Add the areas of the upper base, the lower base, and the square root of the product of the areas of the two bases; multiply this sum by one-third of the altitude.*

Let A be the area of lower base, a the area of upper base, h the altitude, and V the volume; then,

$$V = (A + a + \sqrt{Aa})\frac{h}{3}.$$

If the base is a regular polygon, the area may be found by the rules in Arts. **140** and **141.**

EXAMPLE 1.—Given, a frustum of a hexagonal pyramid, each edge of the lower base measuring 8 inches and each edge of the upper base 5 inches, and whose altitude is 14 inches, what is its volume?

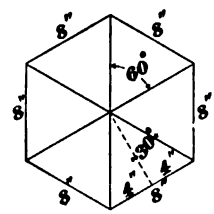

FIG. 96.

SOLUTION.—A hexagonal pyramid is one whose base is a regular hexagon, as shown in Fig. 96. Hence, using the formula in Art. **140,**

$$A = \frac{n\,l^2 \cot x}{4} = \frac{6 \times 8 \times 8 \times 1.73205}{4} = 166.28\,\square''.$$

In a similar way, find the area of the upper base to be 64.95 □″. Then, applying the formula,

$$166.28 + 64.95 + \sqrt{166.28 \times 64.95} = 166.28 + 64.95 + 103.92 = 335.15.$$

$$335.15 \times \tfrac{14}{3} = 1{,}564.03 \text{ cu. in.} = \text{the volume. Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE 2.—What is the volume of a frustum of a cone whose upper base is 8 inches, the lower base is 12 inches in diameter, and whose altitude is 15 inches?

SOLUTION.—The area of the upper base is $8^2 \times .7854 = 50.27\,\square''$. The area of the lower base is $12^2 \times .7854 = 113.1\,\square''$, nearly.

The square root of their product is $\sqrt{50.27 \times 113.1} = 75.4$.

$$50.27 + 113.1 + 75.4 = 238.77.$$

$$238.77 \times \tfrac{15}{3} = 1{,}193.85 \text{ cu. in., the volume. Ans.}$$

THE SPHERE.

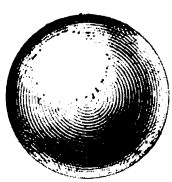
FIG. 97.

171. A **sphere,** Fig. 97, is a solid bounded by a uniformly curved surface, every point of which is equally distant from a point within, called the center.

The word **ball** is commonly used instead of sphere.

172. To find the area of the surface of a sphere:

Rule.—*The area of the surface of a sphere equals the square of the diameter multiplied by 3.1416.*

Let S be the surface and d the diameter; then,

$$S = \pi d^2.$$

EXAMPLE.—What is the area of the surface of a sphere whose diameter is 14 inches?

SOLUTION.—Applying the formula, $S = \pi d^2 = 3.1416 \times 14^2 = 3.1416 \times 14 \times 14 = 615.75$ □″, the area. Ans.

173. To find the volume of a sphere:

Rule.—*The volume of a sphere equals the cube of the diameter multiplied by .5236.*

Let V be the volume and d the diameter; then,

$$V = \tfrac{1}{6}\pi d^3 = .5236\ d^3.$$

EXAMPLE.—What is the weight of a lead cannon ball 12 inches in diameter, a cubic inch of lead weighing .41 pound?

SOLUTION.—Applying the formula, $V = .5236\, d^3 = .5236 \times 12 \times 12 \times 12 = 904.78$ cubic inches, the volume of the ball. $904.78 \times .41 = 370.96$ lb. Ans.

The volume of a spherical shell or hollow sphere is equal to the difference in volume between two spheres having the outer and inner diameters of the shell.

174. To find the diameter of a sphere of known volume:

Rule.—*Divide the volume by .5236 and extract the cube root of the quotient. The result is the diameter.*

$$d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{V}{.5236}} = 1.2407\sqrt[3]{V}.$$

EXAMPLE.—The volume of a sphere is 96.1 cubic inches. What is its diameter?

SOLUTION.—Applying the formula,

$$d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{V}{.5236}} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{96.1}{.5236}} = 1.2407\sqrt[3]{96.1} = 5.68+ \text{ in. Ans.}$$

THE CYLINDRICAL RING.

175. If any solid be sliced in pieces whose adjacent surfaces are flat, any piece is called a **plane section** of the solid.

Plane sections are divided into three classes: Longitudinal sections, cross-sections, and right sections. A **longitudinal section** is any plane section taken lengthwise through the solid. Any other plane section is called a **cross-section.** If the surface exposed by taking a plane section of a solid is perpendicular to the center line of the solid, the section is called a **right section.** The surface exposed by any longitudinal section of a cylinder is a rectangle. The surface exposed by a right section of a cube is a square; of a cylinder or cone, a circle; an oblique cross-section of a cylinder is an ellipse. The lower half of a right section of a cone or pyramid is called a frustum of the cone or pyramid.

176. To find the convex area of a cylindrical ring:

A **cylindrical ring** is a cylinder bent to a circle. The **altitude** of the cylinder before bending is the same as the length of the dotted center line D, Fig. 98.

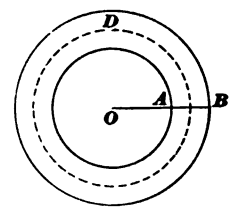

FIG. 98.

177. The **base** will correspond to a cross-section on the line $A\ B$ drawn from the center O. Hence, to find the convex area, multiply the circumference of an imaginary cross-section on the line $A\ B$ by the length of the center line D.

EXAMPLE.—A piece of round-iron rod is bent into circular form to make a ring for a chain; if the outside diameter of the ring is 12 inches and the inside diameter is 8 inches, what is its convex area?

SOLUTION.—The diameter of the center circle equals one-half the sum of the inside and outside diameters $= \frac{12+8}{2} = 10$, and $10 \times 3.1416 = 31.416$ inches, the length of the center line. The radius of the inside circle is 4 inches, of the outside circle 6 inches; therefore, the diameter of the cross-section on the line $A\ B$ is 2 inches. Then, $2 \times 3.1416 = 6.2832$ inches, and $6.2832 \times 31.416 = 197.4$ □″, or the convex area. Ans.

178. To find the volume of a cylindrical ring:

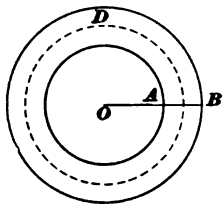

FIG. 99.

The volume will be the same as that of a cylinder whose altitude equals the length of the dotted center line D, Fig. 99, and whose base is the same as a cross-section of the ring on the line A B, drawn from the center O. Hence, to find the volume of a cylindrical ring, multiply the area of an imaginary cross-section on a line A B by the length of the center line D.

EXAMPLE.—What is the volume of a cylindrical ring whose outside diameter is 12 inches and whose inside diameter is 8 inches?

SOLUTION.—The diameter of the center circle equals one-half the sum of the inside and outside diameters $= \frac{12+8}{2} = 10$.

$10 \times 3.1416 = 31.416$ inches, the length of the center line.

The radius of the outside circle = 6 inches, of the inside circle = 4 inches; therefore, the diameter of the cross-section on the line *A B* = 2 inches.

Then, $2^2 \times .7854 = 3.1416$ □″, the area of the imaginary cross-section.

And $3.1416 \times 31.416 = 98.7$ cu. in., the volume. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. Find the weight of an iron bar 16 feet long and 2 inches in diameter, the weight of iron being taken at .28 pound per cubic inch.
Ans. 168.89 lb.

2. What is the area of the entire surface of a hexagonal prism 12 inches long, each edge of the base being 1 inch long?
Ans. 77.196 sq. in.

3. What is the volume of a triangular pyramid, one edge of whose base measures 3 inches and whose altitude is 4 inches? Ans. 5.2 cu. in.

4. Find the volume of a cone whose altitude is 12 inches and the circumference of whose base is 31.416 inches. Ans. 314.16 cu. in.

5. A round tank is 8 feet in diameter at the top (inside) and 10 feet at the bottom. If the tank is 12 feet deep, how many gallons will it hold, there being 231 cubic inches in a gallon? Ans. 5,734.2 gal.

6. Required, the area of the convex surface of the frustum of a square pyramid whose altitude is 16 inches, one side of the lower base being 28 inches long and of the upper base 10 inches. Ans. 1,395.18 sq. in.

7. What is the volume of a sphere 30 inches in diameter?
Ans. 14,137.2 cu. in.

8. How many square inches in the surface of the sphere of example 7? Ans. 2,827.44 sq. in.

9. Required, the area of the convex surface of a circular ring, the outside diameter of the ring being 10 inches and the inside diameter $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches. Ans. 107.95 sq. in.

10. Find the cubical contents of the ring in the last example. Ans. 33.734 cu. in.

11. The volume of a sphere is 606.132 cubic inches; required, the area of the convex surface of a cone whose slant height is 10 inches and the diameter of whose base is the same as the diameter of the sphere. Ans. 164.934 sq. in.

12. What is the volume of the frustum of example 6? Ans. 6,208 cu. in.

PROJECTIONS.

179. If perpendiculars be drawn from the extremities of a line, as $A\,B$, Fig. 100, or Fig. 102, to another line, as $H\,K$, as shown in the figures, that portion of $H\,K$ included between the foot of each perpendicular is called the **projection** of $A\,B$ upon $H\,K$. Thus, $C\,D$ is the projection of $A\,B$ upon $H\,K$, the point C is the projection of the point A upon $H\,K$, and the point D is the projection of the point B upon $H\,K$.

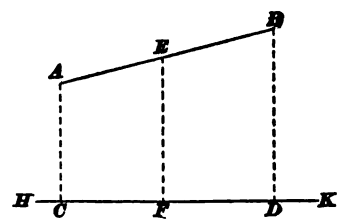

FIG. 100.

The projection of any point of $A\,B$, as E, can be found by drawing a perpendicular from E to $H\,K$, and the point where this perpendicular intersects $H\,K$ is its projection; in this case the point F is the projection of the point E upon $H\,K$.

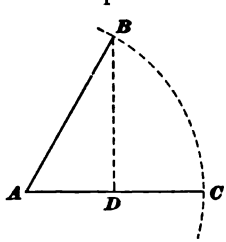

FIG. 101.

From the foregoing it is evident that the projection of any straight line upon another line is found by considering the inclined line as the hypotenuse of a right triangle, as $A\,B$, Fig. 101, so that the projected length may be found by multiplying the hypotenuse by the cosine of the angle that it makes with

the other line; thus, AD is the projection of AB upon the horizontal line AC and BD is its projection on a vertical line.

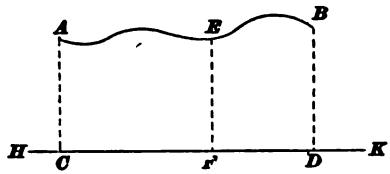

FIG. 102.

It makes no difference whether a line is straight or curved, the method of finding the projection is exactly the same.

In a similar way, a surface is projected upon a flat surface.

Thus, it is desired to project the irregular surface $a\ b\ d\ c$, Fig. 103, upon the flat surface $ABDC$. Draw the lines aa', bb' perpendicular to the flat surface; join the points a' and b' where these perpendiculars intersect the flat surface $ABDC$ by a straight line $a'b'$, and $a'b'$ is the projection of ab upon $ABDC$. The projection of the surface $abdc$ upon the plane $ABDC$ is in this case the quadrilateral $a'b'd'c'$.

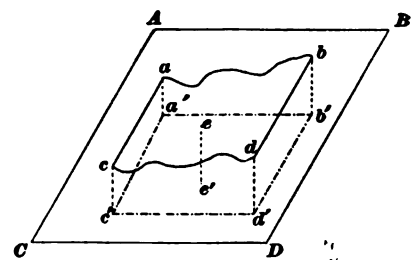

FIG. 103.

SYMMETRICAL AND SIMILAR FIGURES.

180. An **axis of symmetry** is any line so drawn that, if the part of the figure on one side of the line be folded on this line, it will coincide exactly with the other part, point for point and line for line. Thus, in Fig. 104, if the upper half be folded over on the diameter CD, it will coincide exactly with the lower half; also, if the part on the right of the diameter AB be folded over on AB, it will coincide exactly with the part on the left of this line.

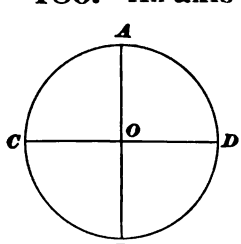

FIG. 104.

It is evident from the above that a circle may have any number of axes of symmetry. In certain cases, however, a figure may be symmetrical with regard to only one axis. Thus, the isosceles triangle ABC, Fig. 105, is symmetrical with regard to the axis BD, because the part BCD would coincide with the part BAD if folded over on the line BD; but no other axis of symmetry could be drawn. A rectangle has two axes of symmetry at right angles to each other. A hexagon has six axes of symmetry.

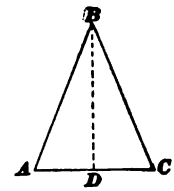

FIG. 105.

181. Similar figures are those which are alike in form. As in the case of triangles, which have been considered, two figures, to be similar, must have their corresponding sides in proportion, and the angles of one equal to the corresponding angles of the other. Any two circles or any two regular polygons of the same number of sides are similar.

182. The areas of two similar figures are to each other as the squares of any one dimension. Thus, a parallelogram 10 inches long and 4 inches wide contains 40 square inches. A similar parallelogram 20 inches long would be 8 inches wide and would contain 160 square inches, while the two areas would be to each other as the squares of the corresponding sides of the parallelograms. That is,

$$40 : 160 = 10^2 : 20^2,$$

or

$$40 : 160 = 4^2 : 8^2.$$

EXAMPLE.—A circle 10 inches in diameter contains 78.54 square inches; what is the area of one 12 inches in diameter?

SOLUTION.—Let $x =$ the area of the larger circle. Then,

$$78.54 : x = 10^2 : 12^2, \text{ or } x = \frac{78.54 \times 144}{100} = 113.0976 \text{ sq. in. Ans.}$$

183. The cubical contents (and weights) of **similar solids** are to each other as the *cubes* of any one dimension.

EXAMPLE 1.—If a cast-iron ball 9 inches in diameter weighs 100 pounds, what would one 15 inches in diameter weigh?

SOLUTION.— $100 : x = 9^3 : 15^3$,

or $x = \frac{100 \times 3{,}375}{729} = 462.96$ lb., the weight of larger ball. Ans.

EXAMPLE 2.—A regular hexagon has sides 5 inches long; how much greater will the area of another regular hexagon be whose sides are 30 inches long?

SOLUTION.— $30 \div 5 = 6$, or the length of a side of a 30-inch hexagon is 6 times as great as the length of a side of a 5-inch hexagon; the area will be $6^2 = 36$ times as great. Ans.

This example may also be solved by letting 1 represent the area of the 5-inch hexagon. Then,

$$1 : x = 5^2 : 30^2, \text{ or } x = \frac{900}{25} = 36.$$

184. The principles given in Arts. **182** and **183** are extremely useful and find many applications in practice, especially in drafting-room practice. Draftsmen almost invariably make their drawings to scale, as it is termed; that is, the size of the paper they are using prevents them from drawing the machine or other object full size, and they are obliged to draw them one-half size, one-quarter size, one-twelfth size, etc.; in other words, each line or dimension on the drawing is $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{12}$, etc. the length of the corresponding line or dimension on the object. For example, the object represented in Fig. 88 is only $\frac{1}{8}$ the actual size, i. e., the length of each line or dimension in the cut is only $\frac{1}{8}$ as long as it would be were the drawing made full size. Suppose there were no dimensions given, but we knew that the drawing was $\frac{1}{8}$ the actual size, and we wanted to know the actual area of the figure. We could measure such lines and dimensions as were necessary and calculate the area of the figure as represented on the drawing. Then, knowing that this figure is *similar* in outline to the object itself, and that any line or dimension on the object is 8 times as long as the corresponding line or dimension on the drawing, we could find the area of the object by multiplying the area of figure by 8^2, or 64. The multiplier 8^2 is obtained from the proportion (see Art. **182**),

$$\text{area of figure} : \text{actual area of object} = 1^2 : 8^2,$$

or $$\text{actual area of object} = 64 \times \text{area of figure}.$$

From the foregoing, it will be readily seen that if we know the area of any figure, no matter what its shape, the area of any similar figure may be found by finding the ratio of any two lines or dimensions similarly placed and *squaring the ratio.* Also, if the volume of any solid is known, the volume of a similar solid may be found by finding the ratio of any two lines or dimensions similarly placed and *cubing the ratio.* For example, suppose the area of a certain figure is known to be 1,024 square inches and it is desired to find the area of a similar figure, the ratio of any two corresponding dimensions being 5 : 4 or $1\frac{1}{4} : 1$. The area desired is obtained by multiplying the known area by $(1\frac{1}{4})^2$, or by squaring the ratio 5 : 4, obtaining 25 : 16; putting this in the fractional form $\frac{25}{16}$, and multiplying 1,024 by this fraction, we get $1{,}024 \times \frac{25}{16} = 1{,}600$ square inches.

Again, if the volume of a certain solid is known, the volume of a similar solid that is, say, with dimensions $\frac{1}{3}$ as large, may be readily found by multiplying the known volume by $(\frac{1}{3})^3 = \frac{1}{27}$.

ELEMENTARY MECHANICS.

MATTER AND ITS PROPERTIES

DEFINITIONS.

828. **Matter** is anything that occupies space. It is the substance of which all bodies are composed. Matter is composed of *molecules* and *atoms.*

829. A **molecule** is the smallest portion of matter that can exist without changing its nature.

830. An **atom** is an indivisible portion of matter.

Atoms unite to form molecules, and a collection of molecules form a mass or body.

A drop of water may be divided and subdivided, until each particle is so small that it can only be seen by the most powerful microscope, but each particle will still be water. Now, imagine the division to be carried on still farther until a limit is reached beyond which it is impossible to go without changing the nature of the particle. The particle of water is now so small that, if it be divided again, it will cease to be water, and will be something else; we call this particle a *molecule.*

If a molecule of water be divided, it will yield two atoms of hydrogen gas, and one of oxygen gas. If a molecule of sulphuric acid be divided, it will yield two atoms of hydrogen, one of sulphur, and four of oxygen.

It has been calculated that the diameter of a molecule is larger than $\frac{1}{12500000000}$ of an inch, and smaller than $\frac{1}{500000000}$ of an inch.

831. **Bodies** are composed of collections of molecules. Matter exists in three conditions or forms: *solid*, *liquid*, and *gaseous.*

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832. A **solid body** is one whose molecules change their relative positions with great difficulty; as iron, wood, stone, etc.

833. A **liquid body** is one whose molecules tend to change their relative positions easily. Liquids readily adapt themselves to the vessel which contains them, and their upper surface always tends to become perfectly level. Water, mercury, molasses, etc., are liquids.

834. A **gaseous body,** or gas, is one whose molecules tend to separate from one another; as air, oxygen, hydrogen, etc.

Gaseous bodies are sometimes called **aeriform** (air-like) **bodies.** They are divided into two classes—the so-called "*permanent*" *gases*, and *vapors.*

835. A **permanent gas** is one which remains a gas at ordinary temperatures and pressures.

836. A **vapor** is a body which at ordinary temperatures is a liquid or solid, but, when heat is applied, becomes a gas, as steam.

One body may be in all three states; as, for example, mercury, which at ordinary temperatures is a liquid, becomes a solid (freezes) at 40° below zero, and a vapor (gas) at 600° above zero. By means of great cold, all gases, even hydrogen, have been liquefied, and some solidified.

By means of heat, all solids have been liquefied and a great many vaporized. It is probable that if we had the means of producing sufficiently great extremes of heat and cold, all solids might be converted into gases, and all gases into solids.

837. Every portion of matter possesses certain qualities called *properties.* Properties of matter are divided into two classes: *general* and *special.*

838. **General properties of matter** are those which are common to all bodies. They are as follows: *Extension, impenetrability, weight, indestructibility, inertia, mobility, divisibility, porosity, compressibility, expansibility,* and *elasticity.*

839. Special properties are those which are not possessed by all bodies. Some of the most important are as follows: *Hardness*, *tenacity*, *brittleness*, *malleability*, and *ductility*.

840. Extension is the property of occupying space. Since all bodies must occupy space, it follows that extension is a general property.

841. By **impenetrability** we mean that no two bodies can occupy exactly the same space at the same time.

842. Weight is the measure of the earth's attraction upon a body. All bodies have weight. In former times it was supposed that gases had no weight, since, if unconfined, they tend to move away from the earth; but, nevertheless, they will finally reach a point beyond which they cannot go, being held in suspension by the earth's attraction. Weight is measured by comparing it with a standard. The standard is a bar of platinum owned and kept by the government; it weighs one pound.

843. Inertia means that a body cannot put itself in motion nor bring itself to rest. To do so, it must be acted upon by some force.

844. Mobility means that a body can be changed in position by some force acting upon it.

845. Divisibility is that property of matter which indicates that a body may be separated into parts.

846. Porosity is that property of matter which indicates that there is space between the molecules of a body. Molecules of bodies are supposed to be spherical, and, hence, there is space between them, as there would be between peaches in a basket. The molecules of water are larger than those of salt; so that when salt is dissolved in water, its molecules wedge themselves between the molecules of the water, and, unless too much salt is added, the water will occupy no more space than it did before. This does not prove that water is penetrable, for the molecules of salt occupy the space that the molecules of water did not.

Water has been forced through iron by pressure, thus proving that iron is porous.

847. Compressibility is that property of matter which indicates that the molecules of a body may be crowded nearer together, so as to occupy a smaller space.

848. Expansibility is that property of matter which indicates that the molecules of a body may be forced apart, so as to occupy a greater space.

849. Elasticity is that property of matter which indicates that if a body be distorted within certain limits, it will resume its original form when the distorting force is removed. Glass, ivory, and steel are very elastic.

850. Indestructibility indicates that matter can never be destroyed. A body may undergo thousands of changes; be resolved into its molecules, and its molecules into atoms, which may unite with other atoms to form other molecules and bodies, which may be entirely different from the original body, but the same number of atoms remains. The whole number of atoms in the universe is exactly the same now as it was millions of years ago, and will always be the same. *Matter is indestructible.*

851. Hardness is that property of matter which indicates that some bodies may scratch other bodies. Fluids and gases do not possess hardness. The diamond is the hardest of all substances.

852. Tenacity is that property of matter which indicates that some bodies resist a force tending to pull them apart. Steel is very tenacious.

853. Brittleness is that property of matter which indicates that some bodies are easily broken; as glass, crockery, etc.

854. Malleability is that property of matter which indicates that some bodies may be hammered or rolled into sheets. Gold is the most malleable of all substances.

855. Ductility is that property of matter which indicates that some bodies may be drawn into wire. Platinum is the most ductile of substances.

856. Mechanics is that science which treats of the action of forces upon bodies, and the effects which they produce; it treats of the laws which govern the movement and equilibrium of bodies, and shows how they may be utilized.

MOTION AND REST.

VELOCITY.

857. Motion is the opposite of rest, and indicates a changing of position in relation to some object. If a large stone is rolled down hill, it is in motion in relation to the hill.

If a person is on a railway train, and walks in the opposite direction from that in which the train is moving, and with the same speed, he will be in motion as regards the train, but at rest with respect to the earth, since, until he gets to the end of the train, he will be directly over the spot at which he was when he started to walk.

858. The **path** of a body in motion is the line described by its *central point.* No matter how irregular the shape of the body may be, nor how many turns and twists it may make; the line which indicates the direction of the center of the body for every instant that it was in motion, is the path of the body.

859. Velocity is rate of motion. It is measured by a unit of space passed over in a unit of time. When equal spaces are passed over in equal times, the velocity is said to be **uniform.** In all other cases it is **variable.**

If the fly-wheel of an engine keeps up a constant speed of a certain number of revolutions per minute, the velocity of any point on the wheel is uniform. A railway train having a constant speed of 40 miles per hour, moves 40 miles every hour, or $\frac{40}{60} = \frac{2}{3}$ of a mile every minute; and, since equal spaces are passed over in equal times, the velocity is uniform.

Let $S =$ the length of space passed over uniformly;
$t =$ the time occupied in passing over the space S;
$V =$ the velocity.

Then, the velocity V must equal the space S, divided by the time t, or

$$V = \frac{S}{t}. \qquad (7.)$$

Also, the space S must equal the velocity V, multiplied by the time, or

$$S = Vt. \qquad (8.)$$

The time t must equal the space S, divided by the velocity, or

$$t = \frac{S}{V} \qquad (9.)$$

860. Unless stated otherwise, the *space passed over* will be the *length of the path of the body*, and will be measured in *feet* and decimals of a foot, and, unless otherwise stated, the *time* will be measured in *seconds.*

When these *units* are used, the *velocity will be in feet per second*, which means that the center of the body passed over a certain *number of feet every second*, and the *unit* will be *one foot in one second.*

EXAMPLE.—The velocity of sound in still air is 1,092 feet per second. If I see the flash of a cannon when it is fired, but do not hear the report until 5 seconds afterwards, how far away is the cannon?

SOLUTION.—$S = Vt = 1{,}092 \times 5 = 5{,}460$ feet. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—The velocity of light is 186,000 miles a second. If the average distance from the earth to the sun is 93,000,000 miles, how long does it take for a beam of light to reach the earth from the sun?

SOLUTION.—$t = \frac{S}{V} = \frac{93{,}000{,}000}{186{,}000} = 500$ seconds, or 8 minutes 20 seconds. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—If a body passes over a space of 4,800 feet uniformly in 8 minutes, what is its velocity in feet per second?

SOLUTION.—8 minutes = 480 seconds. $V = \frac{S}{t} = \frac{4{,}800}{480} = 10$. Hence, the velocity is 10 feet per second. Ans.

In examples concerning *work* the *unit of velocity* is usually taken as *one foot in one minute.*

The *unit of time* may be a *second*, *minute*, *hour*, *day*, or *year*. The *unit of space* may be *feet*, *miles*, *the earth's radius*, or the *distance from the earth to the sun*, according to the conditions of the example. The larger units are used only in astronomy.

EXAMPLE.—The distance from the earth to the moon is about 60 times the radius of the earth; how many miles is it from here to the moon?

SOLUTION.—The radius of the earth is nearly 4,000 miles; hence, $4{,}000 \times 60 = 240{,}000$ miles, the distance to the moon, nearly. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. The piston speed of a steam engine is 10 feet per second; how many miles will the piston travel in one hour? Ans. $6\frac{2}{11}$ mi.

2. If a railroad train travels 70 miles in one hour, what is its velocity in feet per second? Ans. $102\frac{2}{3}$ ft. per sec.

3. A man runs 100 yards in 12 seconds; how long will it take him to run a mile at the same rate? Ans. 3 min. 31.2 sec.

4. The outside diameter of an engine fly-wheel is 13 feet 9 inches. A point on the rim travels 45,000 feet in 5 minutes; what is the velocity in feet per second? Ans. 150 ft. per sec.

FORCE.

THE THREE LAWS OF MOTION.

861. A **force** is that which produces, or tends to produce or destroy, motion. Forces are called by various names, according to the effects which they produce upon a body, as *attraction*, *repulsion*, *cohesion*, *adhesion*, *accelerating* force, *retarding* force, *resisting* force, etc., but all are equivalent to a push or pull, according to the direction in which they act upon a body. That the effect of a force upon a body may be compared with another force, it is necessary that three conditions be fulfilled in regard to both forces; they are as follows:

(1.) *The point of application, or point at which the force acts upon the body, must be known.*

(2.) *The direction of the force, or, what is the same thing, the straight line along which the force tends to move the point of application, must be known.*

(3.) *The magnitude or value of the force, when compared with a given standard, must be known.*

862. The unit of magnitude of forces will *always* be taken as *one pound*, in this section on Elementary Mechanics, and all forces will be spoken of as a certain number of pounds.

863. According to the effects which forces produce upon a body, the science of Mechanics is subdivided as follows:

(1.) *Mechanics of Solid Bodies.*

(2.) *Mechanics of Fluids.*

(3.) *Mechanics of Heat, or Thermodynamics.*

Mechanics of Solids is further divided into *Statics* and *Kinetics*, or *Dynamics*, as it is commonly called.

Mechanics of Fluids is further divided into *Mechanics of Air and Gases*, or *Pneumatics*, and *Mechanics of Liquids.* The Mechanics of Liquids is divided into *Hydrostatics* and *Hydrokinetics;* the latter is also called *Hydraulics* and *Hydrodynamics.*

864. **Statics** treats of the conditions of the equilibrium of bodies. A body is in **equilibrium** under the action of forces, when the forces acting upon the body balance each other.

865. **Kinetics,** or **Dynamics,** treats of bodies in motion, and the effects which they may produce.

866. **Pneumatics** treats of the laws of the pressure and of the movement of air and other gaseous bodies.

867. **Hydrostatics** treats of the equilibrium of liquids.

868. **Hydrokinetics** (also called Hydraulics and Hydrodynamics) treats of liquids in motion, and the effects which they may produce.

869. **Thermodynamics** treats of the mechanical effects of heat upon bodies.

870. The fundamental principles of the relations between force and motion were first stated by Sir Isaac Newton. They are called "Newton's Three Laws of Motion," and are as follows:

(I.) *All bodies continue in a state of rest, or of uniform motion, in a straight line, unless acted upon by some external force that compels a change.*

(II.) *Every motion, or change of motion, is proportional to the acting force, and takes place in the direction of the straight line along which the force acts.*

(III.) *To every action there is always opposed an equal and contrary reaction.*

From the *first law of motion*, it is inferred that a body once set in motion by any force, no matter how small, will move forever in a straight line, and always with the same velocity, unless acted upon by some other force which compels a change. It is not possible to actually verify this law, on account of the earth's attraction for all bodies, but, from astronomical observations, we are certain that the law is true. This law is often called *the law of inertia.*

871. The word **inertia** is so abused that a full understanding of its meaning is necessary. Inertia is not a force, although it is often so called. If a force acts upon a body and puts it in motion, the effect of the force is stored in the body; and a second body, in stopping the first, will receive a blow equal in every respect to the original force, assuming that there has been no resistance of any kind to the motion of the first body.

It is dangerous for a person to jump from a fast-moving train, for the reason that, since his body has the same velocity as the train, it has the same force stored in it that would cause a body of the same weight to take the same velocity as the train, and the effect of a sudden stoppage is the same as the effect of a blow necessary to give the person that velocity. But, by "bracing" himself and jumping in the same direction that the train is moving, and running, he brings himself gradually to rest, and thus reduces the danger. If a body is at rest, it must be acted upon by a force in order to be put in motion, and, no matter how great the force may be, the body cannot be *instantly* put in motion.

The resistance thus offered to being put in motion is commonly, but erroneously, called, the *Resistance of Inertia.* It should be called the *Resistance due to Inertia.*

From the *second law*, it is seen that, if two or more forces act upon a body, their final effect upon the body will be in proportion to their magnitude and to the directions in which they act. Thus, if the wind is blowing due west, with a velocity of 50 miles per hour, and a ball is thrown due north with the same velocity, or 50 miles per hour, the wind will carry the ball just as far west as the force of the throw carried it north, and the combined effect will be to cause it to move north-west. The amount of departure from due north will be proportional to the force of the wind, and independent of the velocity due to the force of the throw.

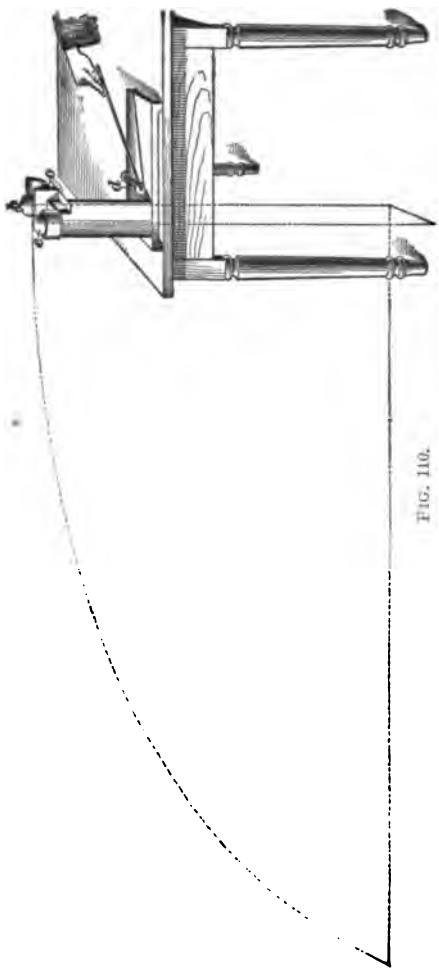

FIG. 110.

In Fig. 110, a ball *e* is supported in a cup, the bottom of which is attached to the lever *o* in such a manner that a movement of *o* will swing the bottom horizontally and allow the ball to drop. Another ball *b* rests in a horizontal groove that is provided with a slit in the bottom. A swinging arm is actuated by

the spring *d* in such a manner that, when drawn back as shown and then released, it will strike the lever *o* and the ball *b* at the same time. This gives *b* an impulse in a horizontal direction and swings *o* so as to allow *e* to fall.

On trying the experiment, it is found that *b* follows a path shown by the curved dotted line, and reaches the floor at the same instant as *e*, which drops vertically. This shows that the force which gave the first ball its horizontal movement, had no effect on the vertical force which compelled both balls to fall to the floor, the vertical force producing the same effect as if the horizontal force had not acted. The second law may also be stated as follows: *A force has the same effect in producing motion, whether it acts upon a body at rest, or in motion, and whether it acts alone or with other forces.*

The *third law* states that action and reaction are equal and opposite. A man cannot lift himself by his boot-straps, for the reason that he presses downwards with the same force that he pulls upwards; the downward reaction equals the upward action, and is opposite to it.

In springing from a boat we must exercise caution, or the reaction will drive the boat from the shore. When we jump from the ground, we tend to push the earth from us, while the earth reacts and pushes us from it.

872. A **force** may be represented by a line; thus, in Fig. 111, let *A* be the *point of application* of the force; let the length of the line *A B* represent its *magnitude*, and let the arrow-head indicate the *direction* in which the force acts, then the line *A B* fulfils the three conditions (see Art. **861**), and the force is fully represented.

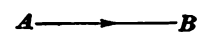

FIG. 111.

THE COMPOSITION OF FORCES.

873. When two forces act upon a body at the same time, but at different angles, their final result may be obtained as follows:

In Fig. 112, let A be the common *point of application* of the two forces, and let $A\ B$ and $A\ C$ represent the *magnitude* and *direction* of the forces. According to the second law of motion, the final effect of the movement due to these two forces would be the same whether they acted singly or together. Suppose that the line $A\ B$ represents the distance that the force $A\ B$ would cause the body to move; similarly, that $A\ C$ represents the distance which the force $A\ C$ would cause the body to move when both forces were acting separately. The force $A\ B$, acting alone, would carry the body to B; if the force $A\ C$ were now to act upon the body, it would carry it along the line $B\ D$, parallel to $A\ C$, to a point D, at a distance from B equal to $A\ C$. Join C and D, then $C\ D$ is parallel to $A\ B$, and $A\ B\ D\ C$ is a parallelogram. Draw the diagonal $A\ D$. According to the second law of motion, the body will stop at D, whether the forces act separately or together, but if they act together, the path of the body will be along $A\ D$, the diagonal of the parallelogram. Moreover, the length of the line $A\ D$ represents the *magnitude* of a force which, acting at A in the *direction* $A\ D$, would cause the body to move from A to D; in other words, $A\ D$, measured to the same scale as $A\ B$ and $A\ C$, represents, in *magnitude* and *direction*, the combined effect of the two forces $A\ B$ and $A\ C$.

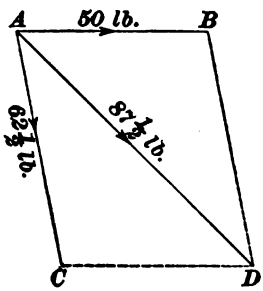

FIG. 112.

874. This line $A\ D$ is called the **resultant.** Suppose that the scale used was 50 pounds to the inch; then, if $A\ B = 50$ pounds, and $A\ C = 62\frac{1}{2}$ pounds, the length of $A\ B$ would be $\frac{50}{50} = 1$ inch, and the length of $A\ C$ would be $\frac{62.5}{50} = 1\frac{1}{4}$ inches. If $A\ D$, or the *resultant*, measures $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches, its *magnitude* would be $1\frac{3}{4} \times 50 = 87\frac{1}{2}$ pounds.

Therefore, a force of $87\frac{1}{2}$ pounds acting upon a body at A in the direction $A\ D$, will produce the same result as the

combined effects of a force of 50 pounds acting in the direction $A\ B$, and a force of $62\frac{1}{2}$ pounds acting in the direction $A\ C$.

875. The above method of finding the resulting action of two forces acting upon a body at a common point, is correct, whatever may be their direction and magnitudes. Hence, to find the **resultant** of two forces when their common point of application, their direction and magnitudes are known:

Rule I.—*Assume a point, and draw two lines parallel to the directions of the lines of action of the two forces. With any convenient scale, measure off from the point of intersection (common point of application), distances corresponding to the magnitudes of the respective forces, and complete the parallelogram. From the common point of application, draw the diagonal of the parallelogram; this diagonal will be the resultant, and its direction will be away from the point of application. Its magnitude should be measured with the same scale that was used to measure the two forces.*

This method is called the **graphical method of the parallelogram of forces.**

876. Experimental Proof.—The principle of the parallelogram of forces is clearly shown in Fig. 113. $A\ B\ D\ C$ is a wooden frame, jointed to allow motion at its four corners. The length $A\ B$ equals $C\ D$; that of $A\ C$ equals $B\ D$, and the corresponding adjacent sides are in the ratio of two to three. Cords pass over the pulleys M and N, carrying weights W and w, of 90 and 60 pounds. The ratio between the weights equals the ratio of the corresponding adjacent sides. A weight V of 120 pounds is hung from the corner A.

When the frame comes to rest, the sides $A\ B$ and $A\ C$ lie in the direction of the cords. These sides $A\ B$ and $A\ C$ are accurate graphic representations of the two forces acting upon the point A. It will be found that the diagonal $A\ D$ is vertical, and twice as long as $A\ C$; hence, since $A\ C$ represents a force of 60 pounds, $A\ D$ will represent a force of 2×60, or 120 pounds.

Thus, we see that the line $A\ D$ represents the *resultant* of the two forces $A\ B$ and $A\ C$; in other words, it represents

the resultant of the two weights W and w. This resultant is equal and opposite to the vertical force, which is due to the weight of V.

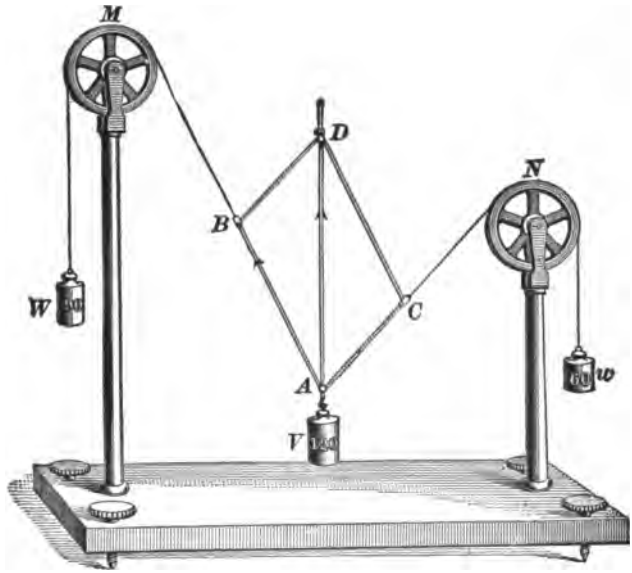

FIG. 113.

Satisfactory results of this kind will be secured when we have the proportion

$$A\,B : A\,C = W : w.$$

EXAMPLE.—If two forces act upon a body at a common point, both acting away from the body, and the angle between them is 80°, what is the value of the resultant, the magnitude of the two forces being 60 pounds and 90 pounds, respectively?

SOLUTION.—Draw two indefinite lines, Fig. 114, making an angle of 80°. With any convenient scale, say 10 pounds to the inch, measure off $A\,B = 60 \div 10 = 6$ inches, and $A\,C = 90 \div 10 = 9$ inches.

Through B, draw $B\,D$ parallel to $A\,C$, and through C, draw $C\,D$ parallel to $A\,B$, intersecting at D. Then draw $A\,D$, and $A\,D$ will be the *resultant;* its *direction* is towards the point D, as shown by the arrow.

Measuring $A\,D$, we find that its length = 11.7 inches. Hence, $11.7 \times 10 = 117$ pounds. Ans.

Caution.—In solving problems by the graphical method, *use as large a scale as possible.* More accurate results are then obtained.

877. The above example might also have been solved

by the method called the **triangle of forces,** which is as follows:

In Fig. 114, suppose that the two forces acted separately, first from A to B, and then from B to D, in the direction of the arrows.

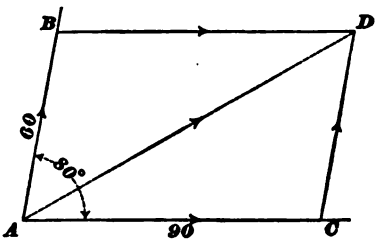

FIG. 114.

Draw $A\ D$; then $A\ D$ is the *resultant* of the forces $A\ B$ and $A\ C$, since $B\ D = A\ C$; but $A\ D$ is a side of the triangle $A\ B\ D$. It will also be noticed that the direction of $A\ D$ is *opposed* to that of $A\ B$ and $B\ D$; hence, to find the **resultant** of two forces acting upon a body at a common point, by the method of triangle of forces:

Rule II.—*Draw the lines of action of the two forces as if each force acted separately, the lengths of the lines being proportional to the magnitude of the forces. Join the extremities of the two lines by a straight line, and it will be the resultant; its direction will be opposite to that of the two forces.*

NOTE.—When we speak of the resultant being opposed in direction to the other forces around the polygon, we mean that, starting from the point where we began to draw the polygon, and tracing each line in succession, the pencil will have the same general direction around the polygon, as if passing around a circle, from left to right, or from right to left, but that the closing line or resultant must have an *opposite direction*, that is, *the two arrow-heads must point towards the point of intersection of the resultant and the last side.*

878. When three or more forces act upon a body at a given point, their *resultant* may be found by the following rule:

Rule III.—*Find the resultant of any two forces; treat this resultant as a single force, and combine it with a third force to find a second resultant. Combine this second resultant with a fourth force, to find a third resultant, etc. After all the forces have been thus combined, the last resultant will be the resultant of all of the forces, both in magnitude and direction.*

EXAMPLE.—Find the resultant of all the forces acting on the point O in Fig. 115, the length of the lines being proportional to the magnitude of the forces.

SOLUTION.—Draw OE parallel and equal to AO, and EF parallel and equal to BO, then OF is the resultant of these two forces, and its direction is from O to F, opposed to OE and EF. Treat OF as if OE and EF did not exist, and draw FG parallel and equal to OC; OG will be the resultant of OF and FG; but OF is the resultant of OE and EF, hence, OG is the resultant of OE, EF, and FG, and likewise of AO, BO, and CO. The line FG, parallel to CO, could not be drawn from the point O to the right of OE, for in that case it would be opposed in direction to OF; but FG must have the same direction as OF, in order that the resultant may be opposed to both OF and FG.

For the same reason, draw GL parallel and equal to DO. Join O and L, and OL will be the *resultant* of all the forces AO, BO, CO, and DO (both in magnitude and direction), acting at the point O. If

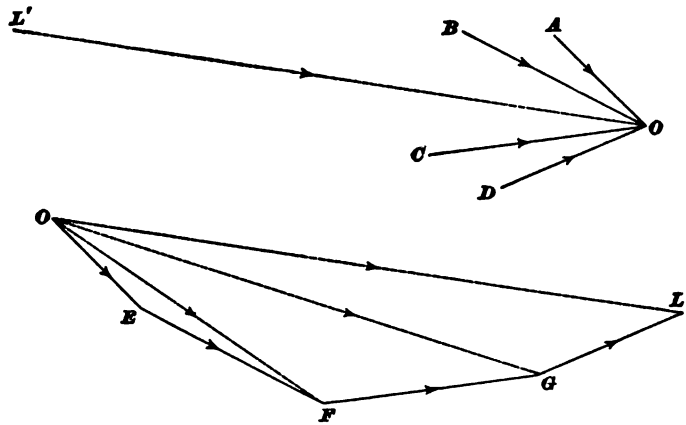

FIG. 115.

$L'O$ were drawn parallel and equal to OL, and having the same direction, it would represent the effect produced on the body by the combined action of the forces AO, BO, CO, and DO.

879. In the last figure, it will be noticed that OE, EF, FG, GL, and LO are sides of a polygon $OEFGL$, in which OL, the resultant, is the closing side, and that its direction is opposed to that of all the other sides. This fact is made use of in what is called the **method of the polygon of forces.**

To find the resultant of several forces acting upon a body at the same point :

Rule IV.—*Through a convenient point on the drawing, draw a line parallel to one of the forces, and having the same*

direction and magnitude. At the end of this line, draw another line parallel to a second force, and having the same direction and magnitude as this second force; at the end of the second line, draw a line parallel and equal in magnitude and direction to a third force. Thus continue until lines have been drawn parallel and equal in magnitude and direction to all of the forces.

The straight line joining the free ends of the first and last lines will be the closing sides of the polygon; mark it opposite in direction to that of the other forces around the polygon, and it will be the resultant of all the forces.

EXAMPLE.—If five forces act upon a body at angles of 60°, 120°, 180°, 240°, and 270°, towards the same point, and their respective magnitudes are 60, 40, 30, 25, and 20 pounds, find the magnitude and direction of their resultant by the method of polygon of forces.*

SOLUTION.—From a common point O, Fig. 116, draw the lines of

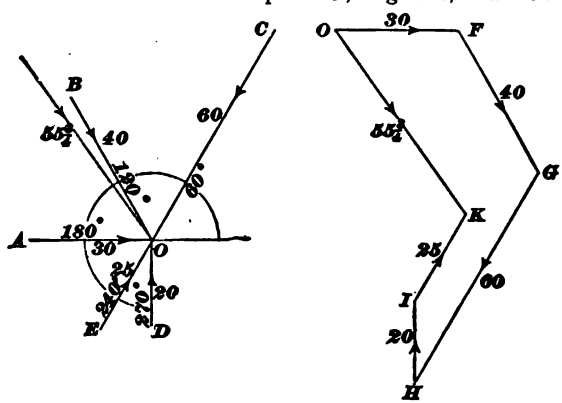

FIG. 116.

action of the forces, making the given angles with a horizontal line through O, and mark them as acting towards O, by means of arrowheads, as shown. Now, choose some convenient scale, such that the whole figure may be drawn in a space of the required size on the drawing. Choose any one of the forces, as AO, and draw OF parallel to it, and equal in length to 30 pounds on the scale. It must also act in the same direction as OA. At F, draw FG parallel to BO, and equal to 40 pounds. In a similar manner, draw GH, HI, and IK parallel to

* NOTE.—As stated in Art. 742, all angles are measured from a horizontal line, in a direction opposite to the movement of the hands of a watch (from around the circle to the left), from 1° or less up to 360°.

CO, *DO*, and *EO*, and equal to 60, 20, and 25 pounds, respectively. Join *O* and *K* by *O K*, and *O K* will be the resultant of the combined action of the five forces; its direction is opposite to that of the other forces around the polygon *O F G H I K*, and its magnitude = 55¾ pounds. Ans.

If the resultant *O K*, in Fig. 116, were to act alone upon the body in the direction shown by the arrow-head, with a force of 55¾ pounds, it would produce exactly the same effect upon a body as the combined action of the five forces.

If *O F*, *F G*, *G H*, *H I*, and *I K* represent the distances and directions that the forces would move the body, if acting separately, *O K* is the direction and distance of movement of the body when all the forces act together.

880. From what has been said before, it is seen that any number of forces acting on a body at the same point, or having their lines of action pass through the same point, can be replaced by a *single force* (resultant), whose line of action shall pass through that point.

881. Heretofore, it has been assumed that the forces acted upon a single point on the *surface* of the body, but it will make no difference where they act, so long as the lines of action of all the forces intersect at a *single point*, either within or without the body, only so that the resultant can be drawn through the *point of intersection*. If two forces act upon a body in the same straight line and in the same direction, their *resultant* is the *sum of the two forces;* but, if they act in opposite directions, their *resultant* is the *difference of the two forces*, and its direction is the same as that of the greater force. If they are equal and opposite, the *resultant* is *zero*, or one force just balances the other.

EXAMPLE.—Find the resultant of the forces whose lines of action pass through a single point, as shown in Fig. 117.

SOLUTION.—Take any convenient point *g*, and draw a line *g f*, parallel to one of the forces, say the one marked 40, making it equal in length to 40 pounds on the scale, and indicate its direction by the arrow-head. Take some other force—the one marked 37 will be convenient; the line *f e* represents this force. From the point *e*, draw a line parallel to some other force; say the one marked 29, and make it equal in magnitude and direction to it. So continue with the other forces, taking care that the general direction around the polygon is not

changed. The last force drawn in the figure is ab, representing the force marked 25. Join the points a and g; then, ag is the resultant of all the forces shown in the figure. Its direction is from g to a op-

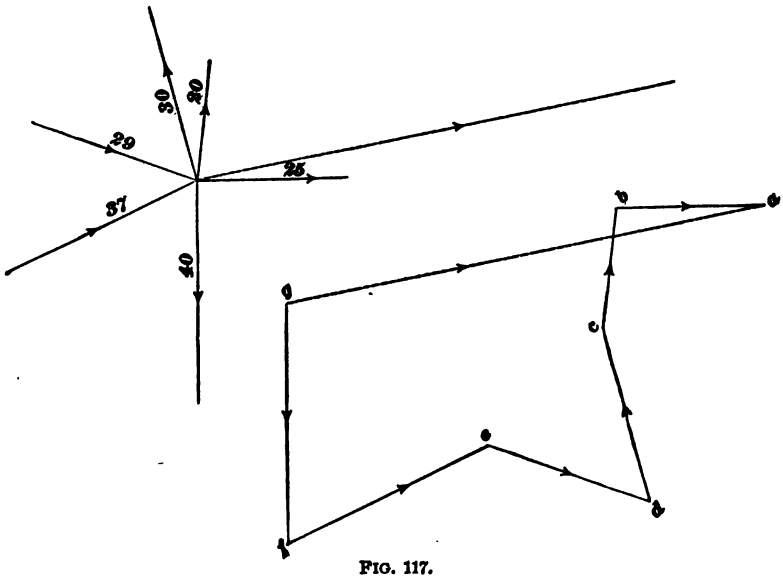

FIG. 117.

posed to the general direction of the others around the polygon. It does not matter in what order the different forces are taken, the resultant will be the same in magnitude and direction, if the work is done correctly.

882. The various methods of finding the resultant of several forces are all grouped under one head : The **composition of forces.**

THE RESOLUTION OF FORCES.

883. Since two forces can be combined to form a single resultant force, we may also treat a single force as if it were the resultant of two forces, whose action upon a body will be the same as that of a single force. Thus, in Fig. 118, the force OA may be resolved into two forces, OB and BA, whose directions are opposed to OA.

If the force OA acts upon a body, moving or at rest upon a horizontal plane, and the resolved force OB is vertical, and BA horizontal, OB, measured to the same scale as

$O\,A$, is the magnitude of that part of $O\,A$ which pushes the body *downwards*, while $B\,A$ is the magnitude of that part of the force $O\,A$ which is exerted in pushing the body in a *horizontal* direction. $O\,B$ and $B\,A$ are called the **components** of the force $O\,A$, and when these components are vertical and horizontal, as in the present case, they are called the *vertical component* and the *horizontal component* of the force $O\,A$.

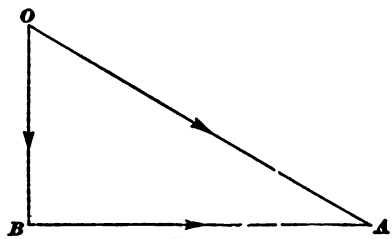

FIG. 118.

884. It frequently happens that the position, magnitude and direction of a certain force is known, and that it is desired to know the effect of the force in some direction, other than that in which it acts. Thus, in Fig. 118, suppose that $O\,A$ represents, to some scale, the magnitude, direction, and line of action of a force acting upon a body at A, and that it is desired to know what effect $O\,A$ produces in the direction $B\,A$. Now $B\,A$, instead of being horizontal, as in the cut, may have any direction. To find the value of the component of $O\,A$ which acts in the direction $B\,A$, we employ the following rule:

Rule V.—*From one extremity of the line representing the given force, draw a line parallel to the direction in which it is desired that the component shall act; from the other extremity of the given force, draw a line perpendicular to the component first drawn, and intersecting it. The length of the component, measured from the point of intersection to the intersection of the component with the given force, will be magnitude of the effect produced by the given force in the required direction.*

Thus, suppose $O\,A$, Fig. 118, represents a force acting upon a body resting upon a horizontal plane, and it is desired to know what *vertical pressure* $O\,A$ produces on the body. Here the desired direction is vertical; hence, from one extremity, as O, draw $O\,B$ parallel to the desired direction (vertical in this case), and from the other extremity,

draw $A\,B$ perpendicular to $O\,B$, and intersecting $O\,B$ at B. Then $O\,B$, when measured to the same scale as $O\,A$, will be the value of the vertical pressure produced by $O\,A$.

EXAMPLE.—If a body weighing 200 pounds rests upon an inclined plane whose angle of inclination to the horizontal is 18°, what force does it exert perpendicular to the plane, and what force does it exert parallel to the plane, tending to slide downwards?

SOLUTION.—Let $A\,B\,C$, Fig. 119, be the plane, the angle A being equal to 18°, and let W be the weight. Draw a vertical line $FD =$ 200 pounds, to represent the magnitude of the weight. Through F, draw FE parallel to $A\,B$, and through D draw $D\,E$ perpendicular to $E\,F$, the two lines intersecting at E. $F\,D$ is now resolved into two components, one, FE, tending to pull the weight downwards, and the other, $E\,D$, acting as a perpendicular pressure on the plane.

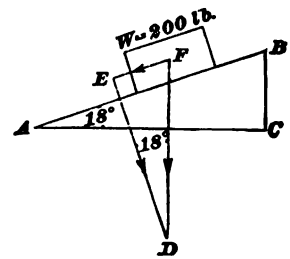

FIG. 119.

Since $F\,D$ is perpendicular to $A\,C$, and $E\,D$ is perpendicular to $A\,B$, the angle $D =$ angle $A = 18°$.

Hence, $FE = 200 \times \sin 18° = 200 \times .30902 = 61.804$ pounds, and $E\,D = 200 \times \cos 18° = 200 \times .95106 = 190.212$ pounds.

Force parallel to the plane = 61.804 pounds.
Force perpendicular to the plane = 190.212 pounds. } Ans.

DYNAMICS.

885. Dynamics may be defined as that branch of Mechanics which deals with bodies moving with a variable velocity. In Elementary Mechanics we shall consider only falling bodies and centrifugal force.

GRAVITATION.

886. Every body in the universe exerts a certain attractive force on every other body, which tends to draw the two bodies together. This attractive force is called **gravitation.**

If a body is held in the hand, a downward pull is felt, and if let go of, it will fall to the ground. This pull is commonly called *weight*, but it really is the attraction between the earth and the body.

887. Force of gravity is a term used to denote the attraction between the earth and bodies upon or near its surface. It always acts in a straight line between the center of the body and the center of the earth. The force of gravity varies at points on the earth's surface.

It is slightly less on the top of a high mountain than at the level of the sea. For this reason, the weight of a body also varies. But if the weight of a body at any place be divided by the force of gravity at that place, the result is called the *mass* of the body.

888. The **mass of a body** is the measure of the actual amount of matter that it contains, and is *always the same.*

If the mass of the body be represented by m, its weight by W, and the force of gravity at the place where the body was weighed, by g, we have

$$\text{mass} = \frac{\text{weight of body}}{\text{force of gravity}}, \text{ or } m = \frac{W}{g}. \qquad \textbf{(10.)}$$

889. Law of Gravitation :—

The force of attraction by which one body tends to draw another body towards it, is directly proportional to its mass, and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between their centers.

890. Laws of Weight :—

Bodies weigh most at the surface of the earth. Below the surface, the weight decreases as the distance to the center decreases.

Above the surface the weight decreases as the square of the distance increases.

ILLUSTRATION.—If the earth's radius is 4,000 miles, a body that weighs 100 pounds at the surface will weigh nothing at the center, since it is attracted in every direction with equal force. At 1,000 miles from the center, it will weigh 25 pounds, since

$$4{,}000 : 1{,}000 = 100 : 25.$$

At 2,000 miles from the center, it will weigh 50 pounds, since

$$4{,}000 : 2{,}000 = 100 : 50.$$

At 3,000 miles from the center, it will weigh 75 pounds, and at the surface, or 4,000 miles from the center, it will weigh 100 pounds. If carried still higher, say 1,000 miles from the surface, or 5,000 miles from the center of the earth, it will weigh 64 pounds, since

$$5{,}000^2 : 4{,}000^2 = 100 : 64.$$

At 4,000 miles from the surface, it will weigh 25 pounds, since

$$8{,}000^2 : 4{,}000^2 = 100 : 25.$$

891. Formulas for Gravity Problems:—

Let W = weight of body at the surface;

w = weight of a body at a given distance above or below the surface;

d = distance between the center of the earth and the center of the body;

R = radius of the earth = 4,000 miles.

Formula for weight when the body is below the surface:

$$w R = d W. \qquad (11.)$$

Formula for weight when the body is above the surface:

$$w d^2 = W R^2. \qquad (12.)$$

EXAMPLE.—How far below the surface of the earth will a 25-pound ball weigh 9 pounds?

SOLUTION.—Use formula **11**, $w R = d W$.

Substituting the values of R, W, and w, we have

$$9 \times 4{,}000 = d \times 25, \text{ or}$$

$$d = \frac{9 \times 4{,}000}{25} = 1{,}440 \text{ miles from the center. Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—If a body weighs 700 pounds at the surface of the earth, at what distance above the earth's surface will it weigh 112 pounds?

SOLUTION.—Use formula **12**, $w d^2 = W R^2$.

Substituting the values of R, W, and w, we have

$$112 \times d^2 = 700 \times 4{,}000^2, \text{ or}$$

$$d = \sqrt{\frac{700 \times 4{,}000^2}{112}} = 10{,}000 \text{ miles.}$$

Therefore, 10,000 − 4,000 = 6,000 miles above the earth's surface. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—The top of Mt. Hercules was said to be 32,000 feet, say 6 miles above the level of the sea. If a body weighs 1,000 pounds at sea-level, what would it weigh if carried to the top of the mountain?

SOLUTION.— $w d^2 = W R^2$, or $w \times 4{,}006^2 = 1{,}000 \times 4{,}000^2$; whence,

$$w = \frac{4{,}000^2 \times 1{,}000}{4{,}006^2} = 997 \text{ pounds. Ans.}$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. How much would 1,000 tons of coal weigh one mile below the surface? Ans. 1,999,500 lb.

2. How much would the coal in example 1 weigh one mile above the surface? Ans. 1,999,000 lb., nearly.

3. How far above the earth's surface would it be necessary to carry a body in order that it may weigh only half as much? Ans. 1,656.854 miles, nearly.

4. A man weighs 160 pounds at the surface; how much will he weigh 50 miles below the surface? Ans. 158 lb.

5. If a body weighs 100 pounds 400 miles above the earth's surface, how much will it weigh at the surface? Ans. 121 lb.

NOTE.—*Use 4,000 miles as the radius of the earth.*

FALLING BODIES.

892. If a leaden ball and a piece of paper are dropped from the same height, the ball would strike the ground first. This is not because the leaden ball is the heavier, but because the resistance of the air has a greater retarding effect upon the paper than upon the ball. If we place this same leaden ball and a piece of paper in a glass tube, Fig. 120, from which all of the air has been exhausted, it would be found that when the tube was inverted, both would drop to the bottom in exactly the same time. This experiment proves that it was only the resistance of the air that caused the ball to reach the ground first, in the former experiment. This resistance of the air may be nearly equalized by making the two bodies of the same shape and size. For example, if a wooden and an iron ball, having equal diameters, were dropped from the same height, they would strike the ground at almost exactly the same instant, although the iron ball might be ten times as heavy as the wooden ball.

FIG. 120.

893. Suppose there were several leaden balls, as shown in Fig. 121, at *a*; it is obvious that if they were dropped

together, all would strike the ground at the same time. If the balls were melted together into one ball, as *b*, they would still fall together, and strike the ground in the same time as before.

FIG. 121.

Since a number of horses cannot run a mile in less time than a single horse, so 100 pounds can fall no further in a given time than one pound can.

894. Acceleration is the rate of change of velocity. If a force acts upon a body free to move, then, according to the first law of motion, it will move forever with the same velocity unless acted upon by another force.

Suppose that, at the end of one second, the same force were to act again, the velocity at the end of the second second would be twice as great as at the end of the first second. If the same force were to act again, the velocity at the end of the third second would be three times that at the end of the first second. So, if a constant force acts upon a body free to move, the velocity of the body at the end of any time will be the velocity at the end of one second, multiplied by the number of seconds.

895. This constant force is called a **constant accelerating force,** or **constant retarding force,** according as the velocity is constantly *increased* or *decreased.*

If a body is dropped from a high tower, the velocity with which it approaches the ground will be constantly increased or accelerated; for the attraction of the earth, or force of gravity, is constant, and acts upon the body as a constant accelerating force. It has been found by careful experiments that this force of gravity, or constant accelerating force, on a freely falling body, is equivalent to giving the body a velocity of 32.16 feet in one second; it is always denoted by *g*. As was mentioned before, *g* varies at different points of the earth, being 32.0902 at the equator, and 32.2549 at the poles. Its value for this latitude (about 41° 25′ north) is very nearly 32.16, and this value should always be used in solving problems. It has also been found by

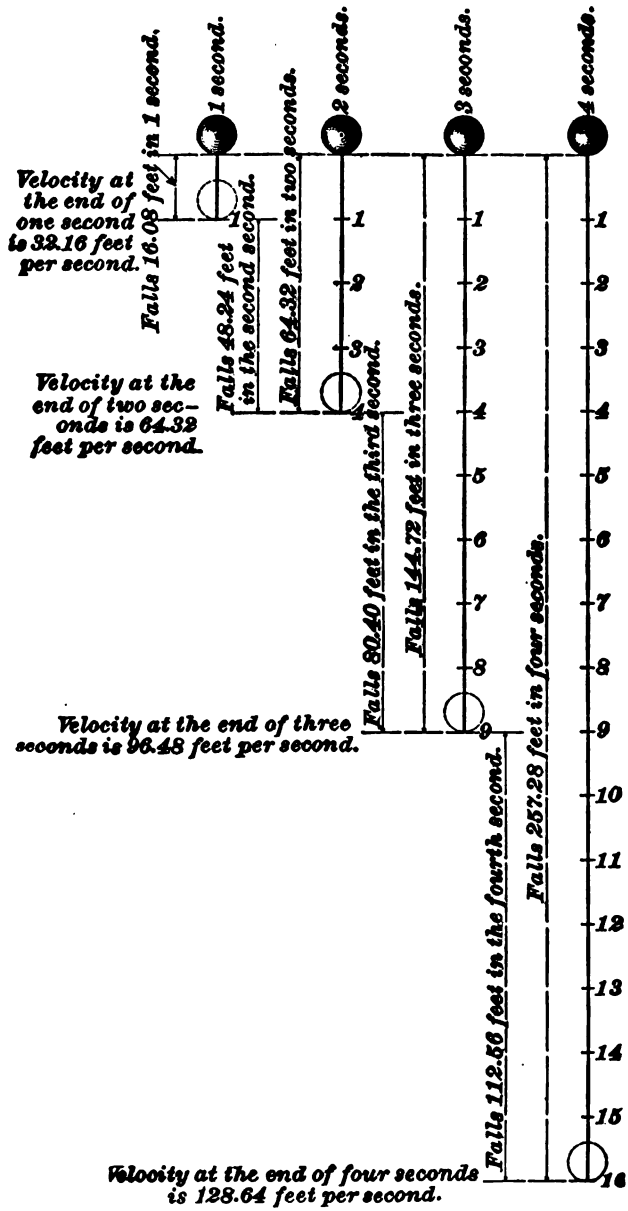
1 second.
2 seconds.
3 seconds.
4 seconds.
Falls 16.08 feet in 1 second.
Velocity at the end of one second is 32.16 feet per second.
Falls 48.24 feet in the second second.
Falls 64.32 feet in two seconds.
Velocity at the end of two seconds is 64.32 feet per second.
Falls 80.40 feet in the third second.
Falls 144.72 feet in three seconds.
Velocity at the end of three seconds is 96.48 feet per second.
Falls 112.56 feet in the fourth second.
Falls 257.28 feet in four seconds.
Velocity at the end of four seconds is 128.64 feet per second.
1
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FIG. 122.

experiment that a freely falling body starting from rest will have fallen 16.08 feet at the end of the first second; 64.32 feet at the end of the second second; 144.72 feet at the end of the third second; 257.28 feet at the end of the fourth second, etc., all of which are shown in the diagram, Fig. 122.

Since $\frac{64.32}{16.08} = 4 = 2^2$; $\frac{144.72}{16.08} = 9 = 3^2$; $\frac{257.28}{16.08} = 16 = 4^2$, and 2^2, 3^2, 4^2 are the squares of the number of seconds during which the body falls, it is easy to see that the space through which a body free to move will fall in a given time is equal to 16.08 multiplied by the square of the time in seconds.

Since $16.08 = \frac{32.16}{2} = \frac{1}{2}g$, the space $= \frac{1}{2}g \times$ square of time in seconds.

896. Formulas for Falling Bodies:—

Let g = force of gravity = constant accelerating force due to the attraction of the earth;
t = number of seconds the body falls;
v = velocity at the end of the time t;
h = distance that a body falls during the time t.

$$v = gt. \qquad (13.)$$

That is, the velocity acquired by a freely falling body at the end of t seconds equals 32.16, multiplied by the time in seconds.

EXAMPLE.—What is the velocity of a body after it has fallen four seconds, assuming that the air offered no resistance?

SOLUTION.—Using formula **13**,

$$v = gt = 32.16 \times 4 = 128.64 \text{ feet per second. Ans.}$$

$$t = \frac{v}{g} \qquad (14.)$$

That is, the number of seconds during which a body must have fallen to acquire a given velocity equals the given velocity in feet per second, divided by 32.16.

EXAMPLE.—A falling body has a velocity of 192.96 feet per second; how long had it been falling at that instant?

SOLUTION.—Using formula **14**,

$$t = \frac{v}{g} = \frac{192.96}{32.16} = 6 \text{ seconds. Ans.}$$

$$h = \frac{v^2}{2g}. \qquad (15.)$$

That is, the height from which a body must fall to acquire a given velocity equals the square of the given velocity, divided by 2 × 32.16.

EXAMPLE.—From what height must a stone be dropped to acquire a velocity of 24,000 feet per minute?

SOLUTION.— 24,000 ÷ 60 = 400 feet per second. Using formula **15**,

$$h = \frac{v^2}{2g} = \frac{400^2}{2 \times 32.16} = \frac{160,000}{64.32} = 2,487.56 \text{ feet. Ans.}$$

$$v = \sqrt{2gh}. \qquad (16.)$$

That is, the velocity that a body will acquire in falling through a given height equals the square root of the product of twice 32.16, and the given height.

EXAMPLE.—A body falls from a height of 400 feet; what will be its velocity at the end of its fall?

SOLUTION.—Using formula **16**,

$$v = \sqrt{2gh} = \sqrt{2 \times 32.16 \times 400} = 160.4 \text{ feet per second. Ans.}$$

$$h = \tfrac{1}{2} gt^2. \qquad (17.)$$

That is, the distance a body will fall in a given time equals 32.16 ÷ 2, multiplied by the square of the number of seconds.

EXAMPLE.—How far will a body fall in 10 seconds?

SOLUTION.—Using formula **17**,

$$h = \tfrac{1}{2} gt^2 = \tfrac{1}{2} \times 32.16 \times 10^2 = 1,608 \text{ feet. Ans.}$$

$$t = \sqrt{\frac{2h}{g}}. \qquad (18.)$$

That is, the time it will take a body to fall through a given height equals the square root of twice the height divided by 32.16.

EXAMPLE.—How long will it take a body to fall 4,116.48 feet?

SOLUTION.—Using formula **18**,

$$t = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 4,116.48}{32.16}} = 16 \text{ seconds. Ans.}$$

897. A body thrown vertically upwards starts with a certain velocity called the **initial velocity.** In this case gravity acts as a constant retarding force. The formulas given above will also apply in this case.

EXAMPLE.—If a cannon ball is shot vertically upwards with an initial velocity of 2,000 feet per second, (*a*) how high will it go? (*b*) How long a time must elapse before it reaches the earth again?

SOLUTION.—(*a*) Using formula **15**,

$$h = \frac{v^2}{2g} = \frac{2{,}000^2}{2 \times 32.16} = 62{,}189 \text{ feet, nearly, } = 11.778 \text{ miles. Ans.}$$

To find the time it takes to reach a height of 62,189 feet, use formula **14**.

$$t = \frac{v}{g} = \frac{2{,}000}{32.16} = 62.19 \text{ seconds.}$$

Since it will take the same length of time to fall to the ground, the total time will be $62.19 \times 2 = 124.38$ seconds $= 2$ minutes 4.38 seconds. Ans.

PROJECTILES.

898. Any body thrown into the air is a **projectile,** and is acted upon by three forces—the original or initial force, the force of gravity, and the resistance of the air. We shall here consider only those projectiles which are thrown horizontally.

899. The **range** is the horizontal distance between the starting point and the point where the body strikes the ground. In Fig. 123, suppose that *A* represents the starting point of the projectile, and that it is shot horizontally outwards in the direction of the arrow with a velocity of 70 feet per second. Now, if the resistance of the air be neglected, the velocity in the horizontal direction will be uniform, and the projectile will pass over equal spaces in equal times. Let *A 1* represent 70 feet, or the space passed over in one second. At the end of five seconds, if gravity had not acted upon the projectile, it

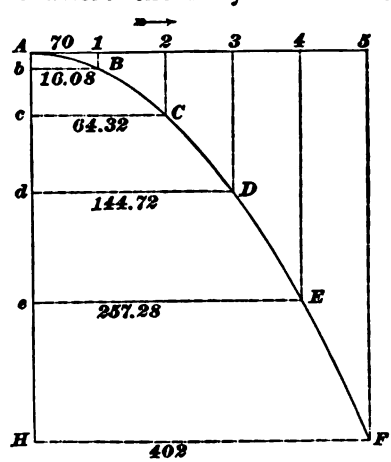

FIG. 123.

would have been at 5, but as gravity has acted, it *falls* 16.08 feet the first second; at the end of the second second it has fallen 64.32 feet, etc.

Let $A\ b$ represent the fall in one second—that is, 16.08 feet, drawn to the same scale as $A\ 1$, which represents 70 feet. Now, complete the parallelogram $A\ 1\ B\ b$, and B will be the point which the projectile has reached at the end of one second. If $A\ c$ represents 64.32 feet, and the parallelogram $A\ 2\ C\ c$ is completed, the projectile will be at C at the end of the second second. Proceeding in this manner, find the points D, E, and F, the positions of the projectile at the end of 3, 4, and 5 seconds, respectively. Drawing the curve $A\ B\ C\ D\ E\ F$ through the points thus found, it represents the path of the projectile. This curve is called a **parabola.**

The distance $H\ F$ is the *range*, and, as is easily seen, *equals the time in seconds multiplied by the original velocity in feet per second.*

900. If the height $A\ H$ and the initial velocity are given, and it is desired to find the range $H\ F$, *calculate the time that it will take to fall through a height equal to the given height, and multiply the time thus found by the initial velocity.*

EXAMPLE.—A cannon ball is fired in a horizontal direction with an initial velocity of 1,500 feet per second. If the mouth of the cannon is 25 feet above the ground, what is its range?

SOLUTION.—Applying formula **18**, Art. **896**,

$$t = \sqrt{\frac{2h}{g}} = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 25}{32.16}} = 1.247 \text{ seconds, nearly.}$$

$$\text{Range} = v\,t = 1{,}500 \times 1.247 = 1{,}870.5 \text{ feet. Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—A projectile has an initial velocity of 90 feet per second. If it is desired to strike an object 15 feet away, how far below the horizontal line of direction must the object be located?

SOLUTION.—The object must be located as far below as the distance that the body would fall, through the action of gravity, during the time it would take in passing over a distance of 15 feet at a velocity of 90 feet per second.

Hence, $15 \div 90 = \frac{1}{6}$ of a second. Applying formula **17**, Art. **896**, $h = \frac{1}{2} g t^2 = \frac{1}{2} \times 32.16 \times (\frac{1}{6})^2 = .447$ foot, nearly, $= 5.36$ inches. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. A body starts from a state of rest, and falls freely for nine seconds; how far will it fall? Ans. 1,302.48 ft.

2. What velocity must a body have in order to carry it upwards 500 feet, vertically? Ans. 179.33 ft. per sec.

3. A baseball is thrown vertically upwards to a height of 200 feet; how long a time must elapse before it strikes the ground? Ans. 7.05 sec.

4. What will be the velocity of a freely falling body at the end of 6 seconds? Ans. 192.96 ft. per sec.

5. A baseball is thrown horizontally 5 feet above the ground, with a velocity of 80 feet per second; what is its range? Ans. 44.61 ft.

6. A leaden bullet falls from a tower 100 feet high; with what velocity will it strike the ground? Ans. 80.2 ft. per sec.

7. A bullet is dropped from a high tower. If it takes $4\frac{1}{4}$ seconds to reach the ground, how high is the tower? Ans. 290.445 ft.

8. A freely falling body has a velocity of 400 feet per second; how long has it been falling? Ans. 12.438 sec.

CENTRIFUGAL FORCE.

901. If a body be fastened to a string and whirled so as to give it a circular motion, there will be a pull on the string, which will be greater or less according as the velocity increases or decreases. The cause of this pull on the string will now be explained.

Suppose that the body is revolved horizontally, so that the action of gravity upon it will always be the same. According to the first law of motion, a body put in motion tends to move in a straight line unless acted upon by some other force, causing a change in the direction. When a body moves in a circle the force that causes it to move in a circle instead of a straight line is exactly equal to the tension of the string. If the string were cut, the pulling force that drew it away from the straight line would be removed and the body would then "fly off at a tangent"—that is, it would move in a straight line tangent to the circle, as shown in Fig. 124.

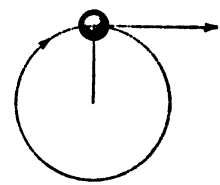

FIG. 124.

902. Since, according to the third law of motion, every action has an equal and opposite reaction, we call that force

which acts as an equal and opposite force to the pull of the string the **centrifugal force,** and it acts *away* from the center of motion.

903. The other force or tension of the string is called the **centripetal force,** and it acts *towards* the center of motion. It is evident that these two forces acting in opposite directions tend to pull the string apart, and, if the velocity be increased sufficiently, the string will break. It is also evident that no body can revolve without generating centrifugal force. The value of the centrifugal force of any revolving body, expressed in pounds, is

$$F = .00034\, W R N^2, \qquad \textbf{(19.)}$$

in which F = centrifugal force;
W = total weight of body in pounds;
R = radius, usually taken as the distance between the center of motion and the center of gravity of the revolving body, in feet;
N = number of revolutions per *minute.*

904. In calculating the centrifugal force tending to burst a fly-wheel, it is the usual practice to consider one-half the rim of the wheel only, and not to take the arms and hub of the wheel into account. In this case, R is taken as the *distance between the inside edge of the rim and the center of the shaft* and the whole is divided by 3.1416.

NOTE.—The general formula for centrifugal force is $F = \frac{m v^2}{R}$, where m = the mass of the revolving body, v = velocity of center of gravity of body in feet per second, and R = radius, as above. Formula **19,** Art. **903,** is easily derived from this. Thus: $m = \frac{W}{g}$; $N = \frac{60\, v}{2 \pi R}$, or $v = \frac{2 \pi R N}{60}$; hence, $F = \frac{m}{R} v^2 = \frac{W}{g R}\left(\frac{2 \pi R N}{60}\right)^2 = .00034\, W R N^2$.

EXAMPLE.—What would be the centrifugal force tending to burst a cast-iron fly-wheel whose outside diameter was 10 feet, width of face 20 inches, and thickness of rim 6 inches, turning at the rate of 80 revolutions per minute?

SOLUTION.—First calculate the weight of one-half the rim. The diameter of the rim $= 10 \times 12 = 120$ inches; the diameter of the circle midway between the inside and outside diameters of the rim =

$120 - 6 = 114$ inches. The number of cubic inches in the rim $= 114 \times 3.1416 \times 20 \times 6 = 42{,}977$ cubic inches. $42{,}977 \times .261 \times \frac{1}{4} = 5{,}608.5$ pounds = weight = W. $R = \frac{10}{2} - \frac{1}{2} = 4\frac{1}{2}$ feet. $N = 80$.

Hence, $F = .00034\ W\ R\ N^2 \div 3.1416 = .00034 \times 5{,}608.5 \times 4\frac{1}{2} \times 80^2 \div 3.1416 = 17{,}481+$ pounds. Ans.

STATICS.

905. **Statics** may be defined as that branch of Mechanics which treats of bodies at rest or of bodies moving with a *uniform* velocity, when these bodies are acted upon by forces. A body is in **static equilibrium** when the resultant of *all* of the forces acting upon the body is zero.

MOMENTS OF FORCES.

906. If from any point O, Fig. 125, a perpendicular be drawn to the line of action of a force, the product of the magnitude of the force and the length of the perpendicular is called the **moment of the force** *about the point O.*

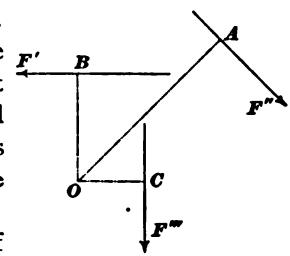

FIG. 125.

Thus, in the figure, the moment of the force F' about the point O is $F' \times O\,B$; of the force F'' about the point O is $F'' \times O\,A$, and of F''' is $F''' \times O\,C$.

907. The use of the moment will be explained further on, when the necessity arises for using it. The point O is called the **center of moments.**

908. When two *equal* forces act in parallel lines, but in opposite directions, they constitute what is called a **couple.**

909. In Fig. 126, the equal and parallel forces F' and F'', acting in opposite directions (one up and the other down), form a couple. It is easy to see that if they were joined by a connection, as $A\,B$, that they would tend to turn $A\,B$ about the point C, midway between F' and F''. The moment

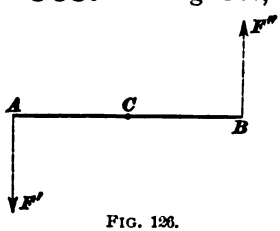

FIG. 126.

of a couple about *any* point is always the same, and is equal to *the product of one of the equal forces into the perpendicular distance between the two forces.*

Thus, the moment of the couple in the figure equals F' or F'' multiplied by $A\ B$. An example of a couple would be a wrench applied to a nut. Here, two opposite and parallel sides of the wrench act in parallel, but opposite, directions, against two parallel sides of the nut.

CENTER OF GRAVITY.

910. *The* ***center of gravity*** *of a body is that point at which the body may be balanced, or it is the point at which the whole weight of a body may be considered as concentrated.*

In a moving body, the line described by its center of gravity is always taken as the path of the body. In finding the distance that a body has moved, the distance that the center of gravity has moved is taken.

911. The definition of the center of gravity of a body may be applied to a system of bodies, if they are considered as being connected at their centers of gravity.

If w and W, Fig. 127, be two bodies of known weights, their center of gravity will be at C. The point C may be readily determined, as follows: Take C as the center of moments; then, since the weights are to balance each other, the moment of W about C must equal the moment of w about C; or, in other words, $W \times C\ W = w \times C w$.

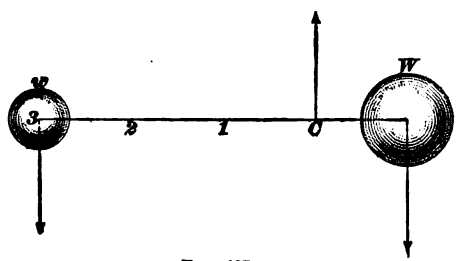

FIG. 127.

If the distance between the centers of gravity of W and w is known, it is very easy to find $C\ w$ and $C\ W$. For

Let $l =$ the distance wW between the centers of the bodies;

$l_1 =$ the short arm CW;

$w =$ weight of small body;

$W =$ weight of large body.

Then, since $wC = l - l_1$, we have, taking the moments about the point C,

$$Wl_1 = w(l - l_1) = wl - wl_1 \text{; whence,}$$

$$Wl_1 + wl_1 = (W + w)l_1 = wl, \text{ or}$$

$$l_1 = \frac{wl}{W + w}. \qquad \textbf{(20.)}$$

EXAMPLE.—In Fig. 127, $w = 10$ pounds, $W = 30$ pounds, and the distance between their centers of gravity is 36 inches; where is the center of gravity of both bodies situated?

SOLUTION.—Applying formula **20**,

$$CW = l_1 = \frac{wl}{W + w} = \frac{10 \times 36}{30 + 10} = 9 \text{ inches;}$$

hence, the center of gravity is 9 inches from the center of the larger body. Ans.

The general method for finding the short arm CW is, then, as follows: *Multiply the weight of the smaller body by the distance between the centers of the two bodies, and divide this product by the sum of the weights of the two bodies.*

912. It is now very easy to extend this principle, to the finding of the center of gravity of any number of bodies when their weights and the distances apart of their centers of gravity are known, by applying the principle of finding the resultant of several forces; that is, by finding the center of gravity of two of the bodies, as W_1 and W_4 in Fig. 128, at C_1.

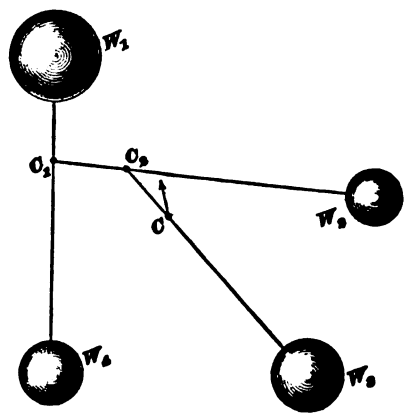

FIG. 128.

Assume that the weight of both bodies is concentrated at C_1, and find the center of gravity of this combined weight at C_1 and of W_2 to be at C_2; then, find that the center of gravity of the combined weights of W_1, W_4, and W_2 (concentrated at C_2) and W_3 to be at C, and C will be the center of gravity of the four bodies.

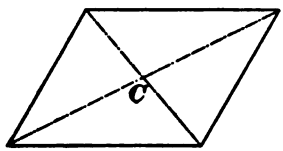

FIG. 129.

913. To find the center of gravity of any parallelogram: *Draw the two diagonals, Fig. 129, and their point of intersection C will be the center of gravity.*

914. To find the center of gravity of a triangle, as $A\,B\,C$, Fig. 130: *From any vertex, as A, draw a line to the middle point D of the opposite side B C. From one of the other vertexes, as C, draw a line to F, the middle point of the opposite side A B; the point of intersection, O, of these two lines, is the center of gravity.*

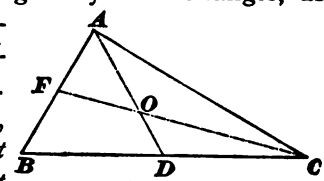

FIG. 130.

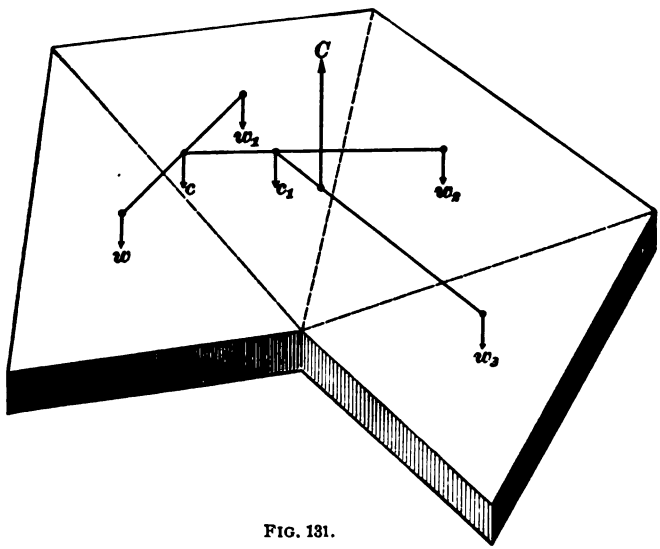

FIG. 131.

It is also true that the distance $D\,O = \frac{1}{3}\,D\,A$, and that

$F\ O = \frac{1}{3}\ F\ C$, and the center of gravity could have been found by drawing from any vertex a line to the middle point of the opposite side, and measuring back from that side $\frac{1}{3}$ of the length of the line.

The center of gravity of any regular plane figure is the same as the geometrical center.

915. To find the center of gravity of any irregular plane figure, but of uniform thickness throughout, divide one of the parallel surfaces into triangles, parallelograms, circles, ellipses, etc., according to the shape of the figure; find the area and center of gravity of each part separately, and combine the centers of gravity thus found, as in the case of more than two bodies whose weights were known, except that the area of each part is used instead of their weights. See Fig. 131.

916. Center of Gravity of a Solid.—In a body free to move, the center of gravity will lie in a vertical plumb

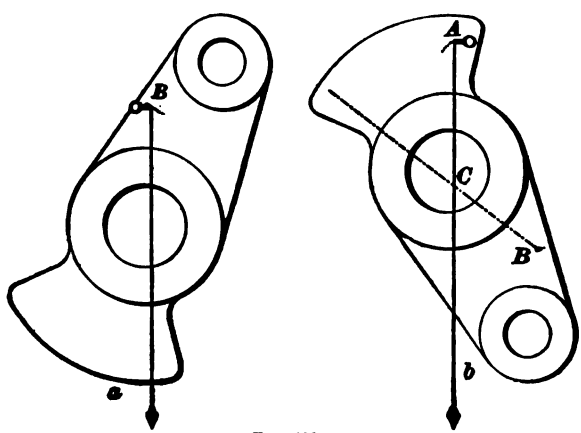

FIG. 132.

line drawn through the point of support. Therefore, to find the position of the center of gravity of an irregular solid, as the crank, Fig. 132, suspend it at some point, as B, so that it will move freely. Drop a plumb line from the point of suspension, and mark its direction. Suspend the body at another point, as A, and repeat the process. The

intersection of the two lines will be directly over the center of gravity.

Since the center of gravity depends wholly upon the shape and weight of a body, it may be without the body, as in the case of a circular ring, whose center of gravity is at the center of the circumference of the ring.

EQUILIBRIUM.

917. When a body is at rest, all of the forces which act upon it are said to *balance* one another, or to be in **equilibrium.** The most important of the forces is gravity, which acts upon every molecule of the body.

918. There are three states of equilibrium : **Stable, unstable,** and **neutral.**

919. A body is in **stable equilibrium** when, if slightly displaced from its position of rest, *it tends to return to that position.*

For example, a cube, a cone resting on its base, a pendulum, etc.

If a body is in **stable equilibrium,** *its center of gravity is raised when it is displaced.*

920. A body is in **unstable equilibrium** when, if slightly displaced from its position of rest, *it tends to fall farther from that position.*

For example, a cone standing upon its point, an egg balanced upon its end, etc.

Any movement, however slight, lowers *the center of gravity* when the body is in unstable equilibrium.

921. A body is in **neutral equilibrium** when it has *no tendency to move either way,* in the direction of its motion, after being slightly displaced.

For example, a sphere of uniform density ; a cone resting on its side.

922. A vertical line drawn through the center of gravity of a body is called the **line of direction.** So long as the line of direction falls within the base, the body will stand. When the line of direction falls without the base, the body will fall.

Let $A\ C\ B$, Fig. 133, be a cylinder whose base is oblique to the center line $B\ O\ D$; and let O be the center of gravity of this cylinder.

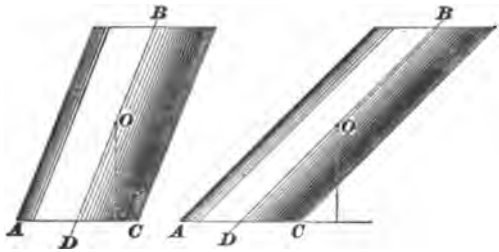

FIG. 133.

So long as the perpendicular through O falls between A and C, the cylinder will stand, but the instant that it falls without the base, the cylinder will fall.

The center of gravity of a body always tends to seek its lowest point.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. There are three weights in a straight line. The first weighs 40 lb.; the second, 16 lb., and the third, 50 lb. Distance between the first and second is 6 ft., and between the second and third, 10 ft. Where is the center of gravity? Ans. 8 ft. 5.434 in. from the 40-lb. weight.

2. Find the perpendicular distance between the center of gravity and the longer side of a triangle whose sides are 7 ft., 10 ft., and 15 ft. long. Solve graphically. Ans. 1.31 ft.

3. A rectangle, 2 ft. long and 1 ft. wide, has equal weights of 50 lb. each, suspended from two of its diagonally opposite corners. A weight of 60 lb. and another of 80 lb. are suspended from the other two corners. Supposing the rectangle to be without weight, where is the center of gravity? Ans. { On the diagonal joining the 60-lb. and 80-lb. weights, 1.118 in. from the center.

4. Find the center of gravity of a quadrilateral whose sides are 14, 15, 16, and 18 in. long, the angle between the 18 and 16 in. sides being 45°. Give the perpendicular distance from the 18 in. side. Ans. 5.46 in.

SIMPLE MACHINES.

THE LEVER.

923. A **lever** is a bar capable of being turned about a pin, pivot or point, as in Figs. 134, 135 and 136.

924. The object W to be lifted is called the **weight**; the force used P is called the **power**; and the point or pivot F is called the **fulcrum**.

925. That part of the lever between the weight and the fulcrum, or $F\ b$, is called the **weight arm,** and the part between the power and the fulcrum, or $F\ c$, is called the **power arm.**

926. Take the fulcrum, or point F, as the center of moments; then, in order that the lever shall be in equilibrium, the moment of P about F, or $P \times F\,c$, must equal the moment of W about F, or $W \times F\,b$. That is, $P \times F\,c = W \times F\ b$, or, in other words, *the power multiplied by the power arm equals the weight multiplied by the weight arm.*

927. If F be taken as the center of a circle, and arcs be described through b and c, it will be seen that, if the weight arm is moved through a certain angle, the power arm will move through the same angle; also, that the vertical distance that W moves will be the sine of this angle, in a circle whose radius is the weight arm, and that the vertical distance that P moves will be the sine of the same angle in a circle whose radius is the power arm. From this it is seen that the power arm is proportional to the distance through

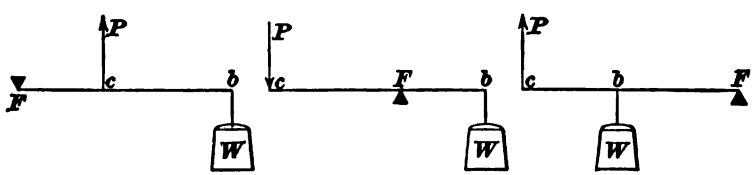

FIG. 134. FIG. 135. FIG. 136.

which the power moves, and the weight arm is proportional to the distance through which the weight moves.

Hence, instead of writing $P \times F\,c = W \times F\,b$, we might have written it $P \times$ distance through which P moves $= W \times$ distance through which W moves. This is the general law of all machines, and can be applied to any mechanism, from the simple lever up to the most complicated arrangement. Stated in the form of a rule, it is as follows:

Rule VI.—*The power multiplied by the distance through which it moves equals the weight multiplied by the distance through which it moves.*

EXAMPLE.—If the weight arm of a lever is 6 inches long and the power arm is 4 feet long, how great a weight can be raised by a force of 20 pounds at the end of the power arm?

SOLUTION.—4 feet = 48 inches. Hence, $20 \times 48 = W \times 6$, or $W =$ 160 pounds. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—(*a*) What is the ratio between the power and the weight in the last example? (*b*) In the last example, if P moves 24 inches, how far does W move? (*c*) What is the ratio between the two distances?

SOLUTION.—(*a*) 20 : 160 = 1 : 8; that is, the weight moved is 8 times the power. Ans.

(*b*) $20 \times 24 = 160 \times x$. $x = \frac{480}{160} = 3$ inches, the distance that W moves. Ans.

(*c*) 3 : 24 = 1 : 8, or the ratio is 1 : 8. Ans.

928. The law which governs the straight lever also governs the bent lever; but care must be taken to determine the true lengths of the lever arms, which are in every case *the perpendicular distances from the fulcrum to the line of direction of the weight or power.*

Thus, in Figs. 137, 138, 139, and 140, $F\,c$ in each case represents the power arm, and $F\,b$ the weight arm.

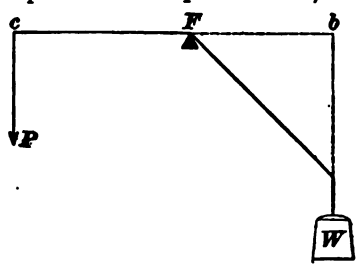

FIG. 137.

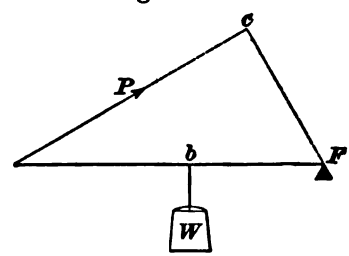

FIG. 138.

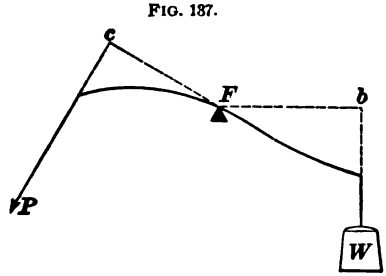

FIG. 139.

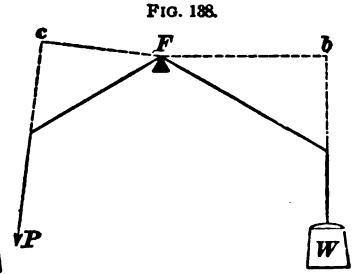

FIG. 140.

929. The Compound Lever.—A **compound lever** is a series of single levers arranged in such a manner that

when a force is applied to the first it is communicated to the second, and from this to the third, and so on.

Fig. 141 shows a compound lever. It will be seen that when a power is applied to the first lever at P it will be communicated to the second lever at P, from this to the third lever at P, and thus raise the weight W.

The weight which the power of the first lever could raise acts as the power of the second, and the weight which this could raise by means of the second lever acts as the power of the third lever, and so on, no matter how many single levers make up the compound lever.

In this case, as in every other, the power multiplied by the distance through which it moves equals the weight multiplied by the distance through which it moves.

Hence, if we move the P end of the lever, say, 4 inches, and the W end moves $\frac{1}{5}$ of an inch, we know that the ratio

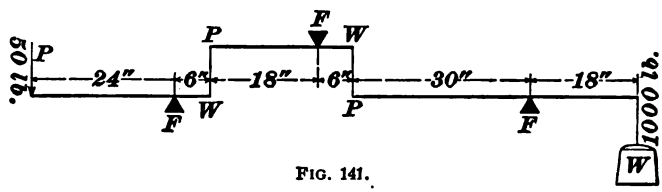

FIG. 141.

between P and W is the same as the ratio between $\frac{1}{5}$ and 4; that is, 1 to 20, and, hence, that 10 pounds at P would balance 200 pounds at W, without measuring the lengths of the different lever arms. If the lengths of the lever arms are known, the ratio between P and W may be readily obtained from the following rule:

Rule VII.—*The continued product of the power and each power arm equals the continued product of the weight and each weight arm.*

EXAMPLE.—If, in Fig. 141, the power arms $PF = 24$ inches, 18 inches, and 30 inches, and weight arms $WF = 6$ inches, 6 inches, and 18 inches, (*a*) how great a force must be applied at the free end P to raise 1,000 pounds at W? (*b*) What is the ratio between P and W?

SOLUTION.— $P \times 24 \times 18 \times 30 = 1{,}000 \times 6 \times 6 \times 18,$

$$\text{or } P = \frac{648{,}000}{12{,}960} = 50 \text{ pounds. Ans.}$$

$$50 : 1{,}000 = 1 : 20, \text{ or } P : W = 1 : 20. \text{ Ans.}$$

THE WHEEL AND AXLE.

930. The **wheel and axle** consists of *two cylinders of different diameters, rigidly connected*, so that they turn together about a common axis, as in Fig. 142. Then, as

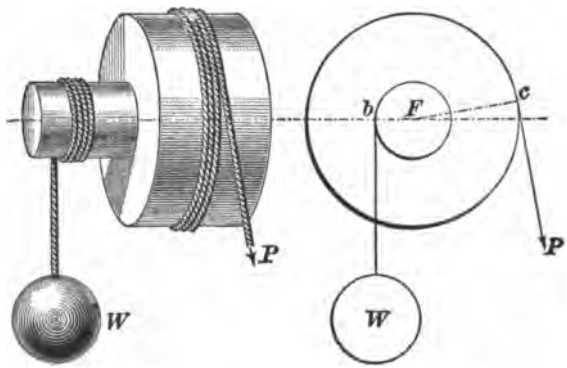

FIG. 142.

before, $P \times$ distance through which it moves $= W \times$ distance through which it moves; and, since these distances are proportional to the radii of the power cylinder and weight cylinder, $P \times Fc = W \times Fb$.

It is not necessary that an entire wheel be used; an arm, projection, radius, or anything which the power causes to revolve in a circle, may be considered as the wheel. Consequently, if it is desired to hoist a weight with a windlass, Fig. 143, the force is applied to the handle of the crank, and the distance between the center line of the crank-handle and the axis of the drum corresponds to the radius of the wheel.

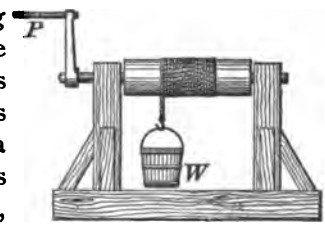

FIG. 143.

EXAMPLE.—If the distance between the center line of the handle and the axis of the drum, in Fig. 143, is 18 inches, and the diameter of the drum is 6 inches, what force will be required at P to raise a load of 300 pounds?

SOLUTION.— $P \times 18 = 300 \times \frac{6}{2}$, or $P = 50$. Ans.

931. Wheelwork.—A combination of wheels and axles, as in Fig. 144, is called a **train.** The wheel in a train to which motion is imparted from a wheel on another shaft, by such means as a belt or gearing, is called the **driven wheel** or **follower;** the wheel which imparts the motion is called the **driver.**

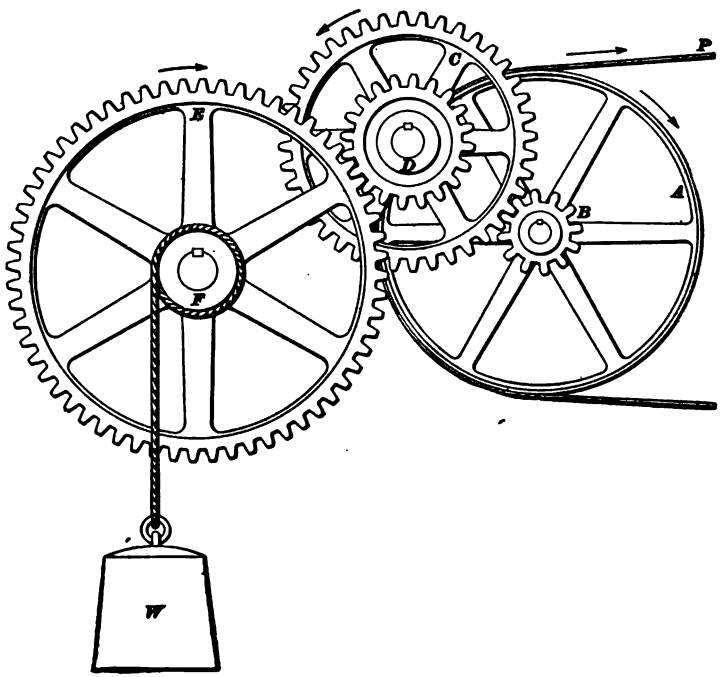

FIG. 144.

932. It will be seen that the wheel and axle bears the same relation to the train that the simple lever does to the compound lever; that is, *the continued product of the power and the radii of the driven wheels equals the continued product of the weight, the radius of the drum that moves the weight, and the radii of the drivers.*

EXAMPLE.—If the radius of the wheel A is 20 inches, of C, 15 inches, and of E, 24 inches; if the radius of the drum F is 4 inches, of the

pinion D, 5 inches, and of the pinion B, 4 inches, how great a weight will a force of 1 pound at P raise?

SOLUTION.— $1 \times 20 \times 15 \times 24 = W \times 4 \times 5 \times 4$, or $W = \frac{7,200}{80} = 90$ pounds. Ans.

933. Hence, also, if W were raised one inch, P would move 90 inches, or P would have to move 90 inches to raise W one inch. It is now clear that another great law has made itself manifest, and that is that, *whenever there is a gain in power without a corresponding increase in the initial force, there is a loss in speed.*

In the last example, if P were to move the entire 90 inches in one second, W would move only 1 inch in one second. The same principle may be applied to any machine.

THE PULLEY.

934. A **pulley** is a wheel turning on an axle, over which a cord, chain, or band is passed in order to transmit the force through the cord, chain, or band.

935. The frame which supports the axle of the pulley is called the **block.**

936. A **fixed pulley** is one whose block is not movable, as in Fig. 145. In this case, if the weight W be lifted by pulling down P, the other end of the cord W will evidently move the same distance upwards that P moves downwards; hence, P must equal W.

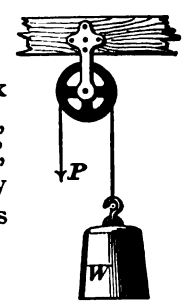

FIG. 145.

937. A **movable pulley** is one whose block is movable, as in Fig. 146. One end of the cord is fastened to the beam, and the weight is suspended from the pulley, the other end of the cord being drawn up by the application of a force P. A little consideration will show that if P moves through a certain distance, say 1 foot, W will move through *half* that

distance, or 6 inches; hence, a pull of 1 pound at P will lift 2 pounds at W.

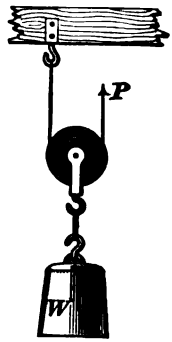

FIG. 146.

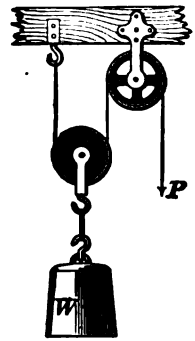

FIG. 147.

The same would also be true if the free end of the cord were passed over a *fixed pulley*, as in Fig. 147, in which case the fixed pulley merely changes the direction in which P acts, so that a weight of 1 pound hung on the free end of the cord will balance 2 pounds hung from the *movable pulley*.

938. A combination of pulleys, as shown in Fig. 148, is sometimes used. In this case there are three movable and three fixed pulleys, and the amount of movement of W, owing to a certain movement of P, is readily found.

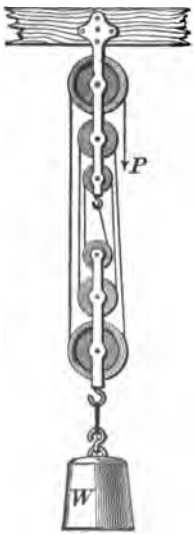

FIG. 148.

It will be noticed that there are *six parts* of the rope, not counting the free end; hence, if the movable block be lifted 1 foot, P remaining in the same position, there would be 1 foot of slack in each of the six parts of the rope, or *six feet* in all. Therefore, P would have to move 6 feet in order to take up this slack, or P moves six times as far as W. Hence, 1 pound at P will support 6 pounds at W, since the *power multiplied by the distance through which it moves equals the weight multiplied by the distance through which it moves.* It will also be noticed that there are three movable pulleys, and that $3 \times 2 = 6$.

Rule VIII.—*In any combination of pulleys where one continuous rope is used a load on the free end will balance a weight on the movable block as many times as great as the load on the free end as there are parts of the rope supporting the load—not counting the free end.*

The above law is good, whether the pulleys are side by side, as in the ordinary *block and tackle*, or whether they are arranged as in the figure.

EXAMPLE.—In a block and tackle having five movable pulleys, how great a force must be applied to the free end of the rope to raise 1,250 pounds?

SOLUTION.—Since there are 5 movable pulleys, there are 10 parts of the rope supporting them, and 1 pound on the free end will balance 10 pounds on the movable block; therefore, the ratio of P to W is 1 : 10, and $P = \frac{1,250}{10} = 125$ pounds. Ans.

939. In Fig. 149 is shown an arrangement called a **differential pulley.** It will be seen that if a force be applied at P, so as to pull the point P down to D, the rope or chain will wind up on the large pulley A, and unwind from the smaller pulley B, and since C is a movable pulley, the weight W will move an amount equal to one-half the difference between the amount of winding on A and unwinding on B.

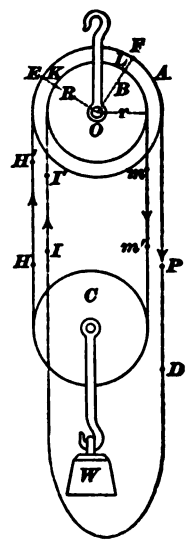

FIG. 149.

Let the radius of A be represented by R, and of B by r; then, when P is pulled down to D, a point E on the pulley A will move through a certain angle, $E\ O\ F$, the length of the arc $E\ F$ being equal to the distance $P\ D$. Any point on the pulley B, which is fastened to A, will turn through the same angle; and the difference between the arc $K\ L$, through which this point turns, and the arc $E\ F$ will be proportional to the difference of the radii R and r.

When P moves down to D, the point H on the other side will move up through the same distance to H'. The point I will move up to I', a distance equal to the length

of the arc $K\,L$, and m will fall through the same distance to m', thus causing the weight W to be *raised one half the difference between $m\,m'$ and $P\,D$.* The ratio between the distances through which W and P move will be

$$\frac{\text{arc } E\,F - \text{arc } K\,L}{2} : E\,F, \text{ or } \frac{R-r}{2} : R.$$

$$\text{Hence, } W \times \frac{R-r}{2} = P \times R, \text{ or } W = \frac{2\,PR}{R-r}. \qquad (21.)$$

EXAMPLE.—If $R = 7$ inches, and $r = 6\frac{1}{2}$ inches, how much weight can be raised at W with a force of 50 pounds at P?

SOLUTION.— $W = \frac{2\,PR}{R-r} = \frac{2 \times 50 \times 7}{7 - 6\frac{1}{2}} = 1{,}400$ pounds. Ans.

THE INCLINED PLANE.

940. An **inclined plane** is a slope or a flat surface, making an angle with a horizontal line.

Three cases may arise in practice with the inclined plane:

I. When the power acts parallel to the plane, as in Fig. 150.

II. When the power acts parallel to the base, as in Fig. 151.

III. When the power acts at an angle to the plane, or to the base, as in Fig. 152.

Case I.—In Fig. 150, the relation existing between the power and the weight is easily found. The weight ascends a distance equal to $c\,b$, or the height of the inclined plane, while the power descends through a distance equal to $a\,b$, or the length of the inclined plane. Therefore, the *power multiplied by the length of the inclined plane equals the weight multiplied by the height of the inclined plane.* Hence, if the length $a\,b = 40$ feet, and the height $c\,b = 20$ feet, $W \times 20 = P \times 40$, or 1 pound at P will balance 2 pounds at W.

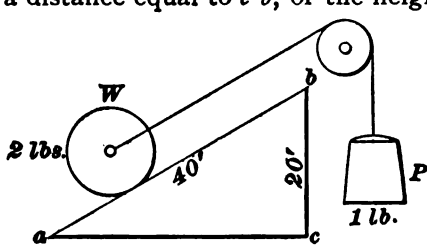

FIG. 150.

Case II.—In Fig. 151, the power is supposed to act parallel to the base for any position of W, the pulley being shifted up and down; therefore, while W is moving from the level $a\,c$ to b, or through the height $c\ b$ of the inclined plane, P will move a distance downwards, relative to the axis of the pulley, equal to the length of the base $a\,c$. Hence, when the power acts parallel to the base, $W \times$ *height of the inclined plane* $= P \times$ *length of base.*

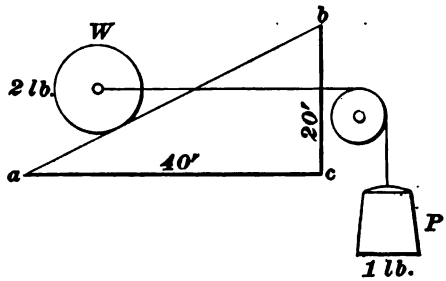

FIG. 151.

If the length of the base is 40 feet, and the height of the inclined plane is 20 feet, $W \times 20 = P \times 40$, and 1 pound at P will balance 2 pounds at W.

Case III.—For Fig. 152 no rule can be given. The ratio of the power to the weight must be determined for every position of W by means of the triangle or parallelogram of forces.

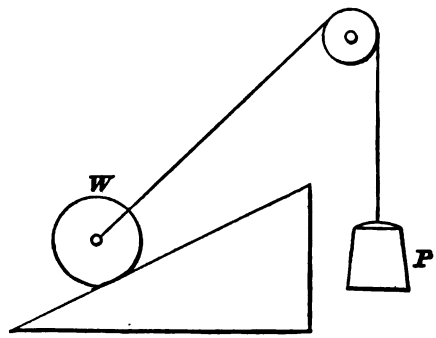

FIG. 152.

This case will be explained by means of an example, as it affords a splendid illustration of the principle of *resolution of forces.*

EXAMPLE.—In Fig. 153, a body W is shown resting on an inclined plane $A\ B$, whose dimensions are marked on the cut; the weight P acts to pull the body up the plane by means of the rope r and pulley p. It is required to find what the weight of P must be in order to start W up the plane. Suppose W weighs 120 pounds, and that friction is neglected. It is also required to find the perpendicular pressure which W exerts against the plane.

SOLUTION.—Through the point a, the center of gravity of W, draw $a\,b$ vertical, and make it of such a length as to represent 120 pounds to a convenient scale, say 60 pounds = 1 inch. Drawing $a\,c$ and $c\,b$,

respectively, parallel and perpendicular to the plane, $a\,c$ represents the magnitude of the force which must be exerted parallel to $A\,B$ in order to put the body in equilibrium—i. e., to balance the force which gravity exerts in pulling the body down the plane. If the rope r were parallel to $A\,B$, $a\,c$ would represent the weight of P; but, since r makes an angle with the plane, P will not be equal to $a\,c$. To find what the weight of P must be, draw $a\,d$ parallel to $a\,c$, but indicate it as acting in the opposite direction, or from a to d instead of from a to c. Now

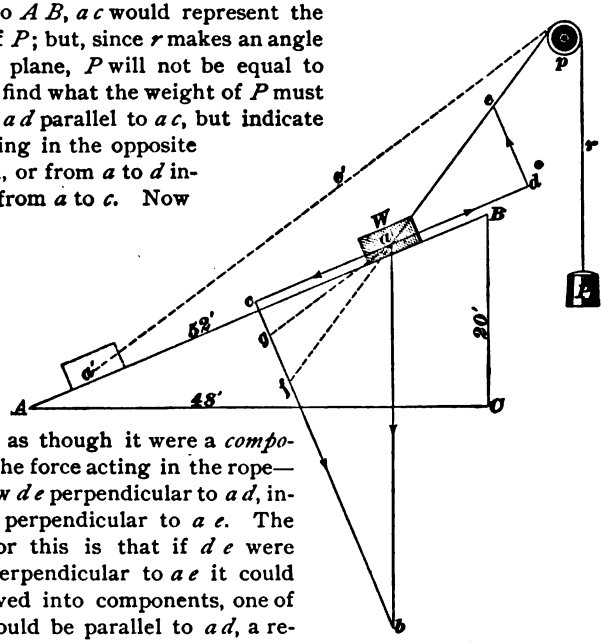

FIG. 153.

treat $a\,d$ as though it were a *component* of the force acting in the rope—i. e., draw $d\,e$ perpendicular to $a\,d$, instead of perpendicular to $a\,e$. The reason for this is that if $d\,e$ were drawn perpendicular to $a\,e$ it could be resolved into components, one of which would be parallel to $a\,d$, a result which we wish to avoid; in other words, we want $d\,e$ perpendicular to the plane. The line $a\,e$, measured to the same scale as $a\,b$, will give the value of P. Measuring it, its length is .89″; hence, $P = .89 \times 60 = 53.4$ pounds. Ans.

To determine the perpendicular pressure against the plane, it will be noticed that $a\,b$ equals the pressure due to gravity. Since $c\,b$ and $d\,e$ are both perpendicular to $A\,B$, they are parallel, and since $d\,e$ acts in the opposite direction to $c\,b$, the actual pressure against the plane is given by the difference between $c\,b$ and $d\,e$. Making $c\,f$ equal to $d\,e$, $f\,b$ represents the perpendicular pressure against the plane when the force P ($= a\,e$) acts as shown. The length of $f\,b$ is 1.39″; hence, the perpendicular pressure is $1.39 \times 60 = 83.4$ pounds. Ans.

Since $c\,a$ and $a\,d$ are parallel and equal, and $c\,f$ and $d\,e$ are also parallel and equal, it follows that $a\,f$ and $a\,e$ must also be parallel and equal. Consequently, the force P might have been found by drawing $a\,f$ parallel to the direction in which the pull on the rope acts, and $b\,f$ perpendicular to the plane $A\,B$. Thus, suppose that the weight occupies the position shown by the dotted lines. Then, drawing $a\,g$

parallel to $a'e'$, ag represents the weight of P, and gb represents the perpendicular pressure of the body W against the plane. Measuring ag, its length is .79″; hence, $P = .79 \times 60 = 47.4$ pounds. Measuring gb, its length is 1.65″; hence, the perpendicular pressure $= 1.65 \times 60 =$ 99 pounds.

941. The Wedge.— The **wedge** is a movable inclined plane, and is used for moving a great weight a short distance. A common method of moving a heavy body is shown in Fig. 154.

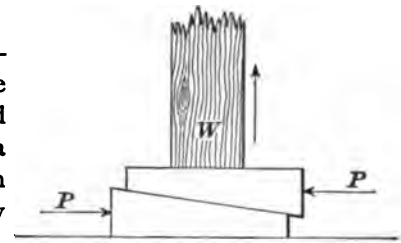

FIG. 154.

Simultaneous blows of equal force are struck on the heads of the wedges, thus raising the weight W. The laws for wedges are the same as for Case II of the inclined plane.

THE SCREW.

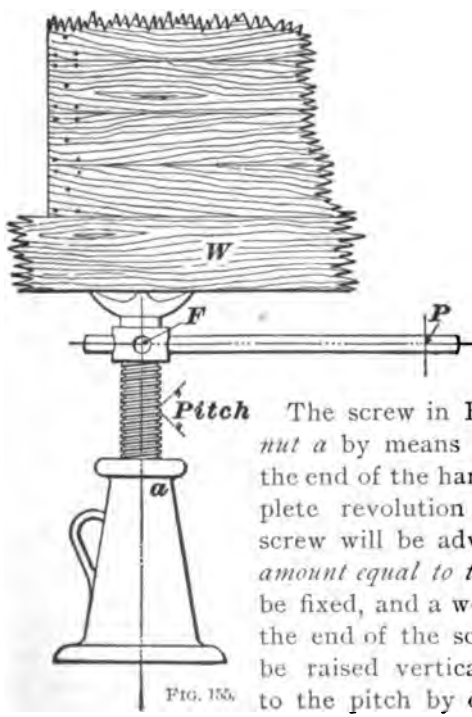

FIG. 155.

942. A **screw** is a cylinder with a spiral groove winding around its circumference. This spiral is called the **thread** of the screw. The distance that the thread is drawn back or advanced in one turn of the screw is called the **pitch** of the screw. The screw in Fig. 155 is turned in a *nut a* by means of a force applied at the end of the handle P. For one complete revolution of the handle, the screw will be advanced lengthwise *an amount equal to the pitch.* If the nut be fixed, and a weight be placed upon the end of the screw, as shown, it will be raised vertically a distance equal to the pitch by one revolution of the

screw. During this revolution the force at P will move through a distance equal to the circumference, whose radius is PF. Hence, $W \times$ pitch of thread $= P \times$ circumference of P.

943. Single-threaded screws of less than 1 inch pitch are generally classified by the number of threads they have in 1 inch of their length. In such cases, *one inch divided by the number of threads equals the pitch;* thus, the pitch of a screw that has 8 threads per inch is $\frac{1}{8}''$; one of 32 threads per inch is $\frac{1}{32}''$, etc.

EXAMPLE.—It is desired to raise a weight by means of a screw having 5 threads per inch. The force applied is forty pounds at a distance of 14 inches from the center of the screw; how great a weight can be raised?

SOLUTION.—Diameter of the circumference passed through by the force $= 14 \times 2 = 28$ inches. Therefore, $W \times \frac{1}{5} = 40 \times 28 \times 3.1416$, or $W = 17{,}593$ pounds. Ans.

VELOCITY RATIO.

944. The ratio of the distance that the power moves to the distance which the weight moves on account of the movement of the power is called the **velocity ratio.**

Thus, if the power is moving 12 inches while the weight is moving 1 inch, the velocity ratio is 12 to 1, or 12; that is, P moves 12 times as fast as W.

945. If the velocity ratio is known, the weight which any machine can raise equals the *power multiplied by the velocity ratio.* If the velocity ratio is 8.7 to 1, or 8.7, $W = 8.7 \times P$, since $W \times 1 = P \times 8.7$.

NOTE.—In all of the preceding cases, including the last, friction has been neglected.

FRICTION.

946. **Friction** is the resistance that a body meets from the surface on which it moves.

947. The **ratio** between the *resistance* to the motion of a body due to friction and the *perpendicular* pressure between the surfaces is called the **coefficient of friction.**

If a weight W, as in Fig. 156, rests upon a horizontal plane, and has a cord fastened to it passing over a pulley a, from which a weight P is suspended, then, if P is just sufficient to start W, the ratio of P to W, or $\frac{P}{W}$, is the *coefficient of friction* between W and the surface it slides upon.

The weight W is the perpendicular pressure, and P is the force necessary to overcome the resistance to the motion of W due to friction.

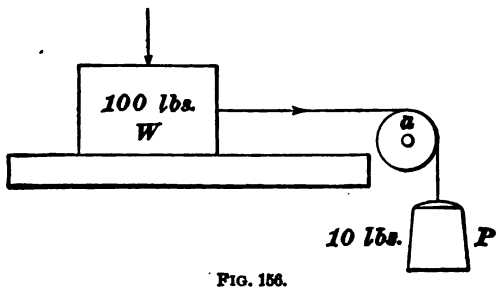

FIG. 156.

If $W = 100$ pounds and $P = 10$ pounds, the coefficient of friction for this particular case would be $\frac{P}{W} = \frac{10}{100} = .1$.

948. Laws of Friction:—

I. *Friction is directly proportional to the perpendicular pressure between the two surfaces in contact.*

II. *Friction is independent of the extent of the surfaces in contact when the total perpendicular pressure remains the same.*

III. *Friction increases with the roughness of the surfaces.*

IV. *Friction is greater between surfaces of the same material than between those of different materials.*

V. *Friction is greatest at the beginning of motion.*

VI. *Friction is greater between soft bodies than between hard ones.*

VII. *Rolling friction is less than sliding friction.*

VIII. *Friction is diminished by polishing or lubricating the surfaces.*

Law I shows why the friction is so much greater on journals after they begin to heat than before. The heat causes the journal to expand, thus increasing the pressure between the journal and its bearing, and, consequently, increasing the friction.

Law II states that, no matter how small the surface may be which presses against another, if the perpendicular pressure is the same, the friction will be the same. Therefore, large surfaces are used where possible; not to reduce the friction, but to reduce the wear and diminish the liability of heating.

For instance, if the perpendicular pressure between a journal and its bearing is 10,000 pounds, and the coefficient of friction is .2, the amount of friction is $10,000 \times .2 = 2,000$ pounds.

Suppose that one-half the area of the surface of the journal is 80 square inches; then, the amount of friction for each square inch of bearing is $2,000 \div 80 = 25$ pounds.

If half the area of the surface had been 160 square inches, the friction would have been the same—that is, 2,000 pounds; but the friction per square inch would have been $2,000 \div 160 = 12\frac{1}{2}$ pounds, just one-half as much as before, and the wear and liability to heat would be one-half as great also.

COEFFICIENTS OF FRICTION.

TABLE 17.

Description of Surfaces in Contact.	Disposition of Fibers.	State of the Surfaces.	Coefficient of Friction.
Oak on oak	Parallel	Dry	.48
Oak on oak	Parallel	Soaped	.16
Wrought iron on oak	Parallel	Dry	.62
Wrought iron on oak	Parallel	Soaped	.21
Cast iron on oak	Parallel	Dry	.49
Cast iron on oak	Parallel	Soaped	.19
Wrought iron on cast iron	—	Slightly Unctuous	.18
Wrought iron on bronze	—	Slightly Unctuous	.18
Cast iron on cast iron	—	Slightly Unctuous	.15

EFFICIENCY.

949. The force which is required to raise a weight, or overcome an equal resistance in any machine, is always *greater than this weight or resistance, divided by the velocity ratio of the machine.*

Thus, if there were no friction, a machine whose velocity ratio was 5 would, by an application of 100 pounds of force, raise a weight of 500 pounds.

Now, suppose that the friction in the machine is equivalent to 10 pounds of force, then it would take 110 pounds of force to raise 500 pounds.

If, in the above illustration, friction were neglected, 110 pounds $\times$ 5 = 550 pounds, or the weight that 110 pounds would raise; but, owing to the frictional resistance, it only raised 500 pounds; therefore, we have for the ratio between the two $\frac{500}{550} = .91$. That is, 500 : 550 = .91 : 1.

950. This ratio between the weight actually raised and the applied force multiplied by the velocity ratio is called the **efficiency of the machine.**

Let F = the force applied to the machine;
V = the velocity ratio of the machine;
W = the weight actually lifted, or equivalent resistance overcome;
$\mathbf{E}$ = the efficiency of the machine.

$$\text{Then, } \mathbf{E} = \frac{W}{FV}. \qquad (22.)$$

EXAMPLE.—In a machine having a combination of pulleys and gears, the velocity ratio of the whole is 9.75. A force of 250 pounds just lifts a weight of 1,626 pounds; what is the efficiency of the machine?

SOLUTION.—$\mathbf{E} = \frac{W}{FV} = \frac{1,626}{250 \times 9.75} = .6671$, or 66.71 %. Ans.

Since the total amount of friction varies with the load, it follows that the efficiency will also vary for different loads.

EXAMPLE.—A pulley block with a velocity ratio of 7 has an efficiency of 38 % for a load of 3,000 pounds; what power is required to start the load?

SOLUTION.—$\mathbf{E} = \frac{W}{FV}$, or $.38 = \frac{3,000}{7F}$

Hence, $F = \frac{3,000}{.38 \times 7} = 1,128$ pounds, nearly. **Ans.**

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. A wedge is caused to move a weight vertically by means of a screw, which pulls the wedge horizontally on its base. If the screw has 5 threads per inch and the handle is 10 inches long, what force will be necessary to apply to the handle to raise a weight of 1,400 pounds, the height of the wedge being 8 inches, and the length, 14 inches?

Ans. 2.546 lb., nearly.

2. If the distance from the fulcrum to the point at which a force of 135 pounds is applied to a lever is 4 feet, and the distance from the fulcrum to the weight is $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches, how great a weight will the force lift? Ans. 4,320 lb.

3. It is desired to raise a weight of 600 pounds by means of a block and tackle having two fixed and two movable pulleys; what force must be applied at the free end of the rope? Ans. 150 lb.

4. If, in the last example, the free end of the rope be attached to a windlass whose drum is 5 inches in diameter, and which has a handle situated 15 inches from the axis of the drum, what force will be necessary to raise the weight? Ans. 25 lb.

5. It is required to pull a wagon up an inclined plane one mile long. The height of the plane being 120 feet, and the weight of the wagon and load 2,816 pounds, what force will be necessary? Ans. 64 lb.

6. In Fig. 144, the radius of the wheel A is 32 inches, of C, 18 inches, and of E, 30 inches; the radius of the drum F is 10 inches, of the pinion D, 4 inches, and of the pinion B, 6 inches. If P moves 4 feet 6 inches, how far will the weight W move? Ans. $\frac{3}{4}$ in.

7. In the last example, how great a force must be applied at P to raise a weight of 2,160 pounds? Ans. 30 lb.

8. In example 4, if the friction be taken as 22% of the load lifted, what force will be necessary? What will be the efficiency?

Ans. { 30.5 lb.
{ 82%, nearly.

WORK AND ENERGY.

951. **Work** *is the overcoming of resistance continually occurring along the path of motion.*

Mere motion is not work, but if a body in motion constantly overcomes a resistance, it does work.

952. The **unit of work** *is one pound raised vertically one foot*, and is called one **foot-pound.** All work is measured by this standard. A horse going up hill does an amount of work equal to his own weight, plus the weight of the wagon and contents, plus the frictional resistances

reduced to an equivalent weight, multiplied by the vertical height of the hill. Thus, if the horse weighs 1,200 pounds, the wagon and contents 1,200 pounds, and the frictional resistances equal 400 pounds, then, if the vertical height of the hill is 100 feet, the work done is equal to $(1{,}200 + 1{,}200 + 400) \times 100 = 280{,}000$ foot-pounds.

953. If the force necessary to overcome the resistance be represented by F, the space through which the resistance acts by S, and the work done by U, then $U = F\,S$.

If $W =$ the weight of a body, and $h =$ the height through which it is raised, $U = W\,h$. Hence, the work done

$$U = F\,S = W\,h. \qquad (23.)$$

954. The *total* amount of work is independent of time, whether it takes one minute or one year in which to do it; but, in order to compare the work done by different machines with a common standard, time must be considered.

When time is considered, the unit of time is always *one minute*, and the unit which measures the capacity of any contrivance for producing work then becomes one **foot-pound per minute.** This unit is called the **unit of power.** The term *power* as here used has a different meaning from that previously given to it, which simply meant force acting to produce motion in simple machines. The student should carefully distinguish between the two. There will be no difficulty in doing this, as the wording of the sentence in which it occurs will always show whether force or work per minute is meant. The power of a machine may always be determined by *dividing the work done in foot-pounds by the time in minutes required to do the work;* i. e.,

$$\text{Power} = \frac{F\,S}{T}, \qquad (24.)$$

in which F and S have the same values as in formula **23,** and $T =$ the time in minutes. Hence, if a certain machine does, say, 10,000 foot-pounds of work in 10 minutes, its *power* is $10{,}000 \div 10 = 1{,}000$ foot-pounds per minute; if another machine does the same work in 5 minutes, its power is $10{,}000 \div 5 = 2{,}000$ foot-pounds per minute—just twice as

much. Hence, we say that the power of the second machine is twice that of the first, and understand thereby that if both machines work for the same length of time the second machine will do twice as much work as the first machine.

955. Since the unit of power is very small, and would lead to the use of very large numbers in expressing the power of large machines, the common standard to which all work is reduced is the horsepower, which equals 33,000 units of power.

One ***horsepower*** *is 33,000 foot-pounds per minute; in other words, it is 33,000 pounds raised vertically one foot in one minute, or 1 pound raised vertically 33,000 feet in one minute, or any combination that will give 33,000 foot-pounds in one minute by multiplying the resistance in pounds by the distance in feet through which it is overcome, and dividing by the time in minutes.*

Thus, 110 pounds raised vertically 5 feet in one second, is a horsepower; for, since one second $= \frac{1}{60}$ of a minute, $110 \times 5 \div \frac{1}{60} = 33{,}000$ foot-pounds in one minute. The abbreviation for horsepower is H. P.

EXAMPLE.—If the coefficient of friction is .3, how many horsepower will it require to draw a load of 10,000 pounds on a level surface a distance of one mile in one hour?

SOLUTION.—$10{,}000 \times .3 = 3{,}000$ pounds = the force necessary to overcome the resistance (resistance of the air is neglected). One mile = 5,280 feet; one hour = 60 minutes.

$$\text{Power} = \frac{FS}{T} = \frac{3{,}000 \times 5{,}280}{60} = 264{,}000 \text{ foot-pounds per minute.}$$

$$\text{Horsepower} = \frac{264{,}000}{33{,}000} = 8 \text{ H.P. Ans.}$$

956. **Energy** is a term used to express *the ability of an agent to do work.* Work cannot be done without motion, and the work that a moving body is capable of doing in being brought to rest is called the **kinetic energy** of the body.

Kinetic energy means the actual energy of a body in motion. The work which a moving body is capable of doing in being brought to rest is exactly the same as the kinetic

energy developed by it when falling in a vacuum through a height sufficient to give it the same velocity.

Let $W =$ the weight of the body in pounds;

$v =$ its velocity in feet per second;

$h =$ the height in feet through which the body must fall to produce the velocity v;

$m =$ the mass of the body $= \frac{W}{g}$. (See formula **10**, Art. **888**.)

957. The work necessary to raise a body through a height h is Wh. The velocity produced in falling through a height h is $v = \sqrt{2gh}$, and $h = \frac{v^2}{2g}$. (See formulas **15** and **16**, Art. **896**.)

Therefore, work $= Wh = W\frac{v^2}{2g} = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{W}{g} \times v^2 = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$, or

$$Wh = \tfrac{1}{2}mv^2. \qquad (25.)$$

In other words, if the weight of the body and its velocity are given, the work necessary to bring it to rest is equal to one-half the product of the mass and the square of the velocity in feet per second. This is the kinetic energy of a moving body.

If a body, whose weight is 64.32 pounds, is moving with a velocity of 20 feet per second, the kinetic energy is $\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{W}{2g} \times v^2 = \frac{64.32}{2 \times 32.16} \times 20^2 = 400$ foot-pounds.

958. The height through which a body would have to fall in a vacuum to gain a velocity of 20 feet per second is $h = \frac{v^2}{2g} = \frac{400}{2 \times 32.16} = \frac{400}{64.32}$; the work done in raising a body through this height is $Wh = 64.32 \times \frac{400}{64.32} = 400$ foot-pounds, the same result as before. The distinction between kinetic energy and work, then, is this: *A body moving with a certain velocity, and meeting with no resistance, is not doing any work*, but has a certain amount of kinetic energy stored up in it, which depends upon the velocity and mass of the body.

If a resistance be interposed just sufficient to stop the body, the body will then do an amount of *work* equal to its kinetic energy.

EXAMPLE.—If a body weighing 25 pounds falls from a height of 100 feet, how much work can be done?

SOLUTION.—Work $= Wh = 25 \times 100 = 2{,}500$ foot-pounds. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—A body weighing 50 pounds has a velocity of 100 feet per second; what is its kinetic energy?

SOLUTION.—Kinetic energy $= \frac{1}{2} m v^2 = \frac{W v^2}{2 g} = \frac{50 \times 100^2}{2 \times 32.16} = 7{,}773.63$ foot-pounds. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—In the last example, how many horsepower would be required to give the body this amount of kinetic energy in 3 seconds?

SOLUTION.—1 H.P. = 33,000 pounds raised one foot in one minute. If 7,773.63 foot-pounds of work are done in 3 seconds, in one second there would be done $\frac{7{,}773.63}{3} = 2{,}591.21$ foot-pounds of work, and in one minute, $2{,}591.21 \times 60 = 155{,}472.6$ foot-pounds.

The number of horsepower developed would be

$$\text{H.P.} = \frac{155{,}472.6}{33{,}000} = 4.7113 \text{ H.P. Ans.}$$

959. ***Potential energy*** *is latent energy; it is the energy which a body at rest is capable of giving out under certain conditions.*

If a stone be suspended by a string from a high tower, it has potential energy due to its position. If the string be cut, the stone will fall to the ground, and during its fall its potential energy will change into kinetic energy, so that, at the instant it strikes the ground, its potential energy is wholly changed into kinetic energy.

At a point equal to one-half the height of the fall, the potential and kinetic energies were equal. At the end of the first quarter, the potential energy was $\frac{3}{4}$, and the kinetic energy $\frac{1}{4}$; at the end of the third quarter, the potential energy was $\frac{1}{4}$, and the kinetic energy $\frac{3}{4}$.

A pound of coal has a certain amount of potential energy. When the coal is burned, the potential energy is liberated, and changed into kinetic energy in the form of heat. The kinetic energy of the heat changes water into steam, which

thus has a certain amount of potential energy. The steam acting on the piston of an engine causes it to move through a certain space, thus overcoming a resistance, changing the potential energy of the steam into kinetic energy, and thus doing work.

***Potential energy**, then, is the energy stored within a body, which may be liberated and produce motion, thus generating kinetic energy, and enabling work to be done.*

960. The principle of **conservation of energy** teaches that energy, like matter, can never be destroyed. If a clock is put in motion, the potential energy of the spring is changed into the kinetic energy of motion, which turns the wheels, thus producing friction. The friction produces heat, which dissipates into the surrounding air, but still the energy is not destroyed—it merely exists in another form. The potential energy in coal was received from the sun, in the form of heat, ages ago, and has laid dormant for millions of years.

FORCE OF A BLOW.

961. The *average* **force of a blow** may be determined as follows:

In driving a nail into a piece of wood with a hammer, the head of the hammer must be capable of exerting, in a very short time, a force equal to that of a load sufficiently heavy to produce by its weight a movement of the nail into the wood, equal to the movement of the nail produced by the hammer; in other words, *the striking force, multiplied by the distance that the nail is driven into the wood, must equal the kinetic energy of the hammer.*

Suppose that the velocity of the hammer, as it strikes the nail, is 30 feet per second, that the weight of the head is 2 pounds, and that the nail is driven into the wood $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch. Let the resistance offered by the wood, which is the same as the striking force of the hammer, be represented by F; then, since $\frac{1}{4}$ inch $= \frac{1}{48}$ of a foot,

$$F \times \tfrac{1}{48} = \tfrac{1}{2} m \times v^2 = \frac{2}{2 \times 32.16} \times 30^2 = 28, \text{ nearly.}$$

Therefore, $F = 28 \times 48 = 1{,}344$ pounds.

Had the penetration been $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch, instead of $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch, the value of F would have been twice as large, or 2,688 pounds. This is as it should be, since the work done is the same in both cases, while the distance through which the force acts is only half as great in the second case as in the first case. Hence, in order that the work may be the same, the force must be doubled.

EXAMPLE.—If the head of a drop-hammer, weighing 400 pounds, falls from a height of 10 feet, and compresses a piece of cold iron .01 of an inch, what was the striking force of the hammer?

SOLUTION.—.01 of an inch = $\frac{.01}{12}$ of a foot.

$$F \times \frac{.01}{12} = Wh = 400 \times 10 = 4{,}000.$$

Hence, $F = \frac{4{,}000 \times 12}{.01} = 4{,}800{,}000$ lb. Ans.

DENSITY AND SPECIFIC GRAVITY.

962. The **density of a body** is its mass divided by its volume in cubic feet.*

Let D be the density; then, the density of a body is,

$$D = \frac{m}{V}. \quad \text{Since } m = \frac{W}{g},\ D = \frac{W}{gV}. \qquad \textbf{(26.)}$$

EXAMPLE.—Three cubic feet of cast iron weigh 1,350 pounds; what is the density of cast iron?

SOLUTION.—$D = \frac{W}{gV} = \frac{1{,}350}{32.16 \times 3} = 13.992.$

EXAMPLE.—A cubic foot of water weighs 62.42 pounds; (*a*) what is its density? (*b*) What is the ratio between the density of cast iron and the density of water?

SOLUTION.—(*a*) $D = \frac{W}{gV} = \frac{62.42}{32.16 \times 1} = 1.941 =$ density. Ans.

(*b*) $\frac{13.992}{1.941} = 7.21 =$ ratio. Ans.

963. The **specific gravity of a body** *is the ratio between its weight and the weight of a like volume of water.*

---

*NOTE.—Some writers define density as the weight of a unit of volume of the material. When English measures are used, the density of any material, according to this definition, is the weight of a cubic foot of the material in pounds.

964. Since gases are so much lighter than water, it is usual to take the specific gravity of a gas as the ratio between the weight of a certain volume of the gas and the weight of the same volume of air.

EXAMPLE.—A cubic foot of cast iron weighs 450 pounds; what is its specific gravity, a cubic foot of water weighing 62.42 pounds?

SOLUTION.—According to the definition,

$$\frac{450}{62.42} = 7.21. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

NOTE.—Notice that this answer is the same as that of the preceding example; hence, the specific gravity of a body is also the *ratio of the density of a body to the density of water.*

965. The specific gravities of different bodies are given in printed tables; hence, if it is desired to know the weight of a body that cannot be conveniently weighed, *calculate its cubical contents, and multiply the specific gravity of the body by the weight of a like volume of water, remembering that a cubic foot of water weighs 62.42 pounds.*

EXAMPLE.—How much will 3,214 cubic inches of cast iron weigh? Take its specific gravity as 7.21.

SOLUTION.—Since 1 cubic foot of water weighs 62.42 pounds, 3,214 cubic inches weigh

$$\frac{3,214}{1,728} \times 62.42 = 116.098 \text{ pounds.}$$

Then, $116.098 \times 7.21 = 837.067$ pounds. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—What is the weight of a cubic inch of cast iron?

SOLUTION.—$\frac{62.42}{1,728} \times 7.21 = .26044$ pound. Ans.

One cubic foot of pure distilled water at a temperature of 39.2° Fahrenheit weighs 62.425 pounds, but *the value usually taken in making calculations is 62.5 pounds.*

EXAMPLE.—What is the weight in pounds of 7 cubic feet of oxygen?

SOLUTION.—One cubic foot of air weighs .08073 pound, and the specific gravity of oxygen is 1.1056, compared with air; hence,

$$.08073 \times 1.1056 \times 7 = .62479 \text{ pound, nearly. Ans.}$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. A man jumps from a railroad train traveling at the rate of 60 miles per hour; if he weighs 160 lb., what is the kinetic energy of his body? Ans. 19,263.68 ft.-lb.

2. A hammer strikes a nail with a velocity of 40 ft. per sec.; if the head weighs $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb., and the nail is driven $\frac{5}{16}$ in., what is the force of the blow? Ans. 1,433 lb., nearly.

3. A load of 20,000 lb. is pulled up an inclined plane $1\frac{1}{4}$ miles long in 5 minutes; if the height of the plane is 800 ft., and the force acting along the plane necessary to overcome friction is 3% of the load, what is the horsepower required? Ans. 125.77 H. P.

4. If a cubic foot of a certain substance weighs $162\frac{1}{2}$ lb., what is its specific gravity? Ans. 2.6.

5. A mixture of lead and tin has a specific gravity of 9.28; what is the weight of a cubic inch? Ans. 5.37 oz.

6. A weight of 11,625 lb. is raised vertically 10 ft. in 3 minutes, by means of a block and tackle and a windlass; the frictional resistances being 26%, how many horsepower were required? Ans. 1.48 H. P.

7. A body weighing 24,062.5 lb. is drawn on a horizontal surface at the rate of 600 ft. per min.; the coefficient of friction being 8%, what horsepower will be necessary to overcome the resistance of friction? Ans. 35 H. P.

8. A solid cast iron sphere, 12″ in diameter, falls through a height of 50 ft.; what will be its kinetic energy on striking? Ans. 11,781 ft.-lb.

966. The table of specific gravities gives the specific gravities of a variety of substances likely to be met with in ordinary practice. The weights per cubic foot are calculated on a basis of 62.5 pounds of water per cubic foot.

HYDRAULICS.

HYDROSTATICS.

967. Hydrostatics treats of liquids at rest under the action of forces.

Liquids are very nearly *incompressible.* A pressure of 15 pounds per square inch compresses water less than $\frac{1}{20000}$ of its volume.

Fig. 157 represents two cylindrical vessels of exactly the same size. The vessel *a* is fitted with a wooden block of the same size as the cylinder, and can move in it; the vessel *b* is filled with water, whose depth is the same as the length of the wooden block in *a*. Both vessels are fitted with air-tight pistons *P* whose areas are each 10 square inches.

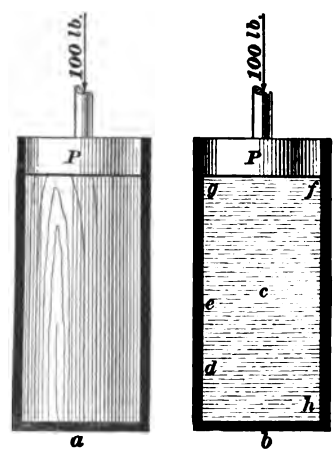

FIG. 157.

Suppose, for convenience, that the weights of the cylinders, pistons, block, and water be neglected, and that a force of 100 pounds be applied to both pistons. The pressure per square inch will be $\frac{100}{10} = 10$ pounds. In the vessel *a*, this pressure will be transmitted to the bottom of the vessel, and will be 10 pounds per square inch; it is easy to see that there will be no pressure on the sides. In the vessel *b*, an entirely different result is obtained. The pressure on the bottom will be the same as in the other case—that is, 10 pounds per square inch—but, owing to the fact that the molecules of the water are perfectly free to

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move, this pressure of 10 pounds per square inch is *transmitted in every direction with the same intensity;* that is to say, the pressure at any point, *c*, *d*, *e*, *f*, *g*, *h*, etc., due to the force of 100 pounds, is exactly the same, and equals 10 pounds per square inch.

This may be easily proven experimentally by means of an apparatus like that shown in Fig. 158. Let the area of the piston *a* be 20 square inches; of *b*, 7 square inches; of *c*, 1 square inch; of *d*, 6 square inches; of *e*, 8 square inches; and of *f*, 4 square inches.

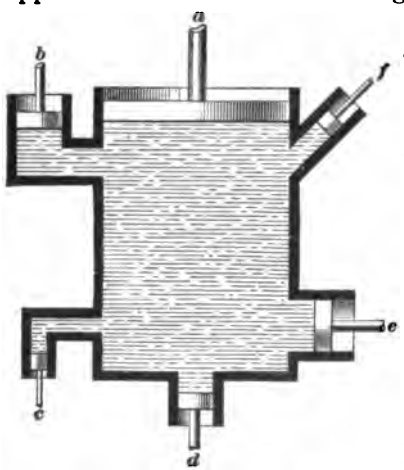


FIG. 158.

If the pressure due to the weight of the water be neglected, and a force of 5 pounds be applied at *c* (whose area is 1 square inch), a pressure of 5 pounds per square inch will be transmitted in all directions; and in order that there shall be no movement, a force of $6 \times 5 = 30$ pounds must be applied at *d*, 40 pounds at *e*, 20 pounds at *f*, 100 pounds at *a*, and 35 pounds at *b*.

If a force of 99 pounds were applied to *a*, instead of 100 pounds, the piston *a* would rise, and the other pistons *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, and *f* would move inwards; but, if the force applied to *a* were 100 pounds, they would all be in equilibrium. Had 101 pounds been applied at *a*, the pressure per square inch would be $\frac{101}{20} = 5.05$ pounds, which would be transmitted in all directions; and, since the pressure due to *c* is only 5 pounds per square inch, it is now evident that the piston *a* will move downwards, and the pistons *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, and *f* will be forced outwards.

The whole may be summed up as follows:

968. Rule.—*The pressure per unit of area exerted anywhere upon a mass of liquid is transmitted undiminished in*

all directions, and acts with the same force upon all surfaces in a direction at ***right angles*** *to those surfaces.*

This law was first discovered by Pascal, and is the most important in Hydromechanics. Its meaning should be thoroughly understood.

EXAMPLE.—If the area of a piston *e* in Fig. 158 were 8.25 square inches, and a force of 150 pounds were applied to it, what forces would have to be applied to the other pistons to keep the water in equilibrium, assuming that their areas were the same as given before?

SOLUTION.—$\frac{150}{8.25} = 18.182$ lb. per sq. in., nearly.

$$\left.\begin{array}{l} 20 \times 18.182 = 363.64 \text{ lb.} = \text{force to balance } a. \\ 7 \times 18.182 = 127.274 \text{ lb.} = \text{force to balance } b. \\ 1 \times 18.182 = 18.182 \text{ lb.} = \text{force to balance } c. \\ 6 \times 18.182 = 109.092 \text{ lb.} = \text{force to balance } d. \\ 4 \times 18.182 = 72.728 \text{ lb.} = \text{force to balance } f. \end{array}\right\} \text{Ans.}$$

969. ***The pressure due to the weight of a liquid*** *may be downwards, upwards, or sideways.*

970. Downward Pressure.—In Fig. 159, the pressure on the bottom of the vessel *a* is, of course, equal to

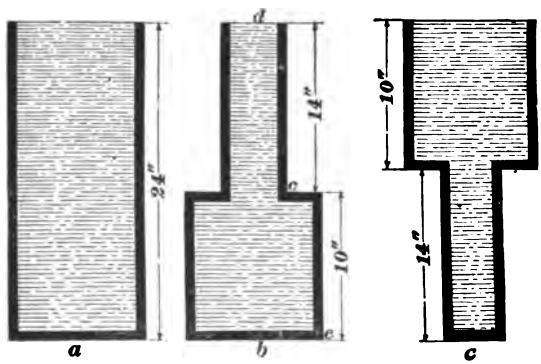


FIG. 159.

the weight of the water it contains. If the area of the bottom of the vessel *b*, and the depth of the liquid contained in it, are the same as in the vessel *a*, the pressure on the bottom of *b* will be the same as on the bottom of *a*. Suppose the bottoms of the vessels *a* and *b* are 6 inches square, and that the part *c d*, in the vessel *b*, is 2 inches square, and

that both vessels are filled with water. Then, the weight of 1 cubic inch of water being $\frac{62.5}{1,728} = .03617$ pound, and the number of cubic inches in *a*, $6 \times 6 \times 24 = 864$ cubic inches, the weight of the water is $864 \times .03617 = 31.25$ pounds. Hence, the total pressure on the bottom of the vessel *a* is 31.25 pounds, or $\frac{31.25}{36} = .868$ pound per square inch.

The pressure in *b*, due to the weight contained in the part *e c*, is $6 \times 6 \times 10 \times .03617 = 13.02$ pounds.

The weight of the part contained in *c d* is $2 \times 2 \times 14 \times .03617 = 2.0255$ pounds, and the weight per square inch of area in *c d* is $\frac{2.0255}{4} = .5064$ pound.

According to Pascal's law, this weight (pressure) is transmitted equally in all directions; therefore, every square inch of the large part of the vessel *b* will be subjected to a pressure of .5064 pound. The area of the part *e c* is $6 \times 6 = 36$ square inches, and the total pressure due to the weight of the water in the small part will be $.5064 \times 36 = 18.23$ pounds. Hence, the total pressure on the bottom of *b* will be $13.02 + 18.23 = 31.25$ pounds, the same result as in the case of the vessel *a*.

If an additional pressure of 10 pounds per square inch were applied to the upper surface of both vessels, the total pressure on their bottoms would be $31.25 + (6 \times 6 \times 10) = 31.25 + 360 = 391.25$ pounds.

In case this pressure were obtained by means of a weight placed on a piston, as shown in Figs. 157 and 158, the weight for the vessel *a* would be $6 \times 6 \times 10 = 360$ pounds, and for the vessel *b*, $2 \times 2 \times 10 = 40$ pounds.

971. The General Law for the Downward Pressure upon the Bottom of any Vessel:

Rule.—*The pressure upon the bottom of a vessel containing a fluid is independent of the shape of the vessel, and is equal to the weight of a prism of the fluid whose base has the same area as the bottom of the vessel, and whose altitude is the dis-*

tance between the bottom and the upper surface of the fluid, plus the pressure per unit of area upon the upper surface of the fluid multiplied by the area of the bottom of the vessel.

Suppose that the vessel *b*, in Fig. 159, is inverted, as shown at *c*; the pressure upon the bottom in this case will also be .868 pound per square inch, but it will require a weight of 3,490 pounds to be placed upon the piston at the upper surface to make the pressure on the bottom 391.25 pounds, instead of a weight of 40 pounds, as in the other case.

EXAMPLE.—A vessel filled with salt water, having a specific gravity of 1.03, has a circular bottom 13 inches in diameter. The top of the vessel is fitted with a piston 3 inches in diameter, on which is laid a weight of 75 pounds; what is the total pressure on the bottom, if the depth of the water is 18 inches?

SOLUTION.—The weight of 1 cubic inch of the water is $\frac{62.5 \times 1.03}{1,728} =$ .037254 lb.

$13 \times 13 \times .7854 \times 18 \times .037254 = 89.01$ pounds = the pressure due to the weight of the water.

$\frac{75}{3 \times 3 \times .7854} = 10.61$ lb. per sq. in. due to the weight on the piston.

$13 \times 13 \times .7854 \times 10.61 = 1,408.29$ lb. = pressure on the bottom due to the weight.

Total pressure $= 1,408.29 + 89.01 = 1,497.3$ lb. Ans.

972. Upward Pressure.—In Fig. 159 the vessel *b* is of exactly the same size as that shown at *c*. There is no upward pressure on the surface *c* due to the weight of the water in the large part *e c*, but there is an upward pressure on *c* due to the weight of the water in the small part *c d*. The pressure per square inch due to the weight of the water in *c d* was found to be .5064 pound (see Art. **970**); the area of the upper surface *c* of the large part *e c* is evidently $(6 \times 6) - (2 \times 2) = 36 - 4 = 32$ square inches, and the total upward pressure due to the weight of the water is $.5064 \times 32 = 16.2$ pounds.

If an additional pressure of 10 pounds per square inch were applied to a piston fitting the top of the vessel, the total upward pressure on the surface *c* would be $16.2 + (32 \times 10) = 336.2$ pounds.

973. General Law for Upward Pressure:

Rule.—*The upward pressure on any submerged horizontal surface equals the weight of a prism of the liquid whose base has an area equal to the area of the submerged surface, and whose altitude is the distance between the submerged surface and the upper surface of the liquid, plus the pressure per unit of area on the upper surface of the fluid multiplied by the area of the submerged surface.*

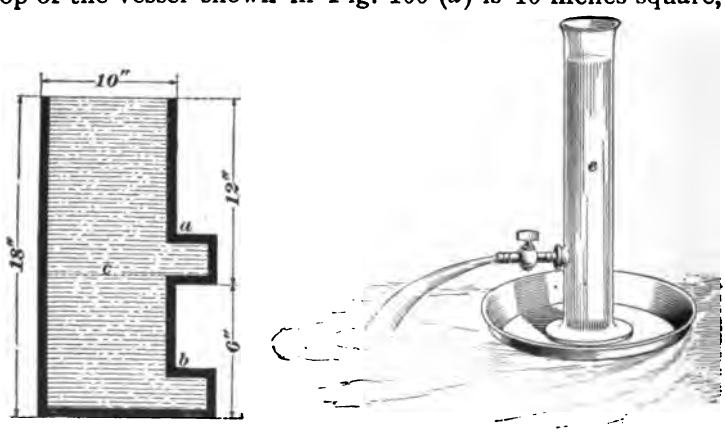
EXAMPLE.—A horizontal surface 6 inches by 4 inches is submerged in a vessel of water 26 inches below the upper surface. If the pressure on the water is 16 pounds per square inch, what is the total upward pressure on the horizontal surface?

SOLUTION.— $6 \times 4 \times 26 \times .03617 = 22.57$ lb., or the upward pressure due to the weight of the water.

$6 \times 4 \times 16 = 384$ lb., or the upward pressure due to the outside pressure of 16 lb. per sq. in.

The total upward pressure $= 384 + 22.57 = 406.57$ lb. Ans.

974. Lateral (Sideways) Pressure.—Suppose the top of the vessel shown in Fig. 160 (*a*) is 10 inches square,



(*a*) (*b*)

FIG. 160.

and that the projections at *a* and *b* are 1 inch $\times$ 1 inch, and 10 inches long.

The pressure per square inch on the bottom of the vessel, due to the weight of the liquid, is $1 \times 1 \times 18 \times$ the weight of a cubic inch of the liquid.

The pressure at a depth equal to the distance of the upper surface *b* below the top of the vessel is $1 \times 1 \times 17 \times$ the weight of a cubic inch of the liquid.

Since both of these pressures are transmitted in every direction, they are also transmitted laterally (sideways), and the *pressure per unit of area on the projection b is a mean between the two*, and equals $1 \times 1 \times 17\frac{1}{2} \times$ the weight of a cubic inch of the liquid.

To find the lateral pressure on the projection *a*, imagine that the dotted line *c* is the bottom of the vessel; then the conditions will be the same as in the preceding case, except that the depth is not so great.

The lateral pressure on *a* is thus seen to be $1 \times 1 \times 11\frac{1}{2} \times$ the weight of a cubic inch of the liquid.

General Law for Lateral Pressure:

975. Rule.—*The pressure upon any vertical surface due to the weight of a liquid is equal to the weight of a prism of the liquid whose base has the same area as the vertical surface, and whose altitude is the depth of the center of gravity of the vertical surface below the level of the liquid.*

Any additional pressure is to be added as in the previous cases.

EXAMPLE.—A well 3 feet in diameter and 20 feet deep is filled with water; what is the pressure on a strip of the wall 1 inch wide, the center of which is 1 foot from the bottom? What is the pressure on the bottom? What is the upward pressure per square inch, 2 feet 6 inches from the bottom?

SOLUTION.— $1 \times 36 \times 3.1416 = 113.1$ sq. in. = area of the strip. Depth of center of gravity $= 20 - 1 = 19$ ft.

$113.1 \times 19 \times 12 \times .03617 = 932.71$ lb. = total pressure upon the strip. Ans.

The pressure per square inch is $\frac{932.71}{113.1} = 8.247$ lb., nearly.

$36 \times 36 \times .7854 \times 20 \times 12 \times .03617 = 8{,}836$ lb. = the pressure on the bottom. Ans.

$20 - 2.5 = 17.5$. $1 \times 17.5 \times 12 \times .03617 = 7.596$ lb. = the upward pressure per square inch, 2 ft. 6 in. from the bottom, since 2 ft. 6 in. = 2.5 ft. Ans.

The effects of the lateral pressure are illustrated in Fig.

160 (*b*). A tall vessel *e* has a stop-cock near its base, and is arranged to float upon the water, as shown. When this vessel is filled with water, the lateral pressures at any two points of the surface of the vessel, and opposite to each other, are equal. Being equal, and acting in opposite directions, they destroy each other (see Art. **881**), and no motion can result; but, if the stop-cock be opened, there will be no resistance to that pressure acting on the surface equal to the area of the opening, the pressure which formerly acted causing the water to flow out, while its equal and opposite pressure will cause the vessel to move backwards through the water in a direction opposite to that of the spouting water.

Since the pressure on the bottom of a vessel due to the weight of the liquid is dependent only upon the height of the liquid, and not upon the shape of the vessel, it follows that if a vessel has a number of radiating tubes, as Fig. 161, the water in each tube will be on the same level, no

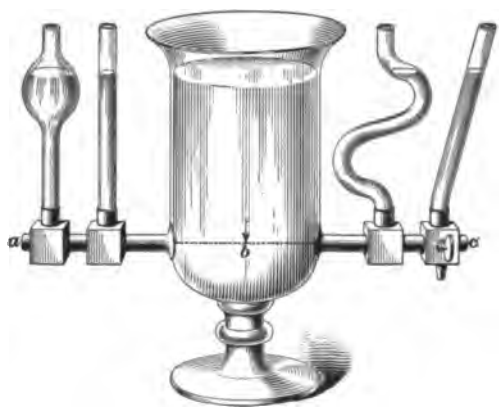


FIG. 161.

matter what may be the shape of the tubes. For, if the water were higher in one tube than in the others, the downward pressure on the bottom due to the height of the water in this tube would be greater than that due to the height of the water in the other tubes.

Consequently, the upward pressure would also be greater;

the equilibrium would be destroyed, and the water would flow from this tube into the vessel, and rise in the other tubes until it was at the same level in all, when it would be in equilibrium. This principle is expressed in the familiar saying, *Water seeks its level*

This explains why city water reservoirs are located on high elevations, and why water on leaving the hose-nozzle spouts so high.

If there was no resistance by friction and air, the water would spout to a height equal to the level of the water in the reservoirs. If a long pipe, whose length was equal to the vertical distance between the nozzle and the level of the water in the reservoir, was attached to the nozzle, the water would just reach the end of the pipe. If the pipe was lowered slightly, the water would trickle out.

Fountains, canal locks, and artesian wells are examples of the application of this principle.

EXAMPLE.—The water level in a city reservoir is 150 feet from the level of the street; what is the pressure of the water per square inch on the hydrant?

SOLUTION.— $1 \times 150 \times 12 \times .03617 = 65.106$ lb. per sq. in. Ans.

976. The weight of a column of water 1 inch square and 1 foot high is $.03617 \times 12 = .434$ pound, nearly. Hence, if the depth (head) is given, the pressure per square inch may be found by multiplying the depth in feet by .434. The constant .434 is the one ordinarily employed in practical calculations.

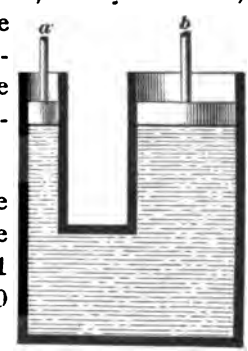


FIG. 162.

977. In Fig. 162, let the area of the piston *a* be 1 square inch; of *b*, 40 square inches. According to Pascal's law, 1 pound placed upon *a* will balance 40 pounds placed upon *b*.

Suppose that *a* moves downwards 10 inches; then, 10 cubic inches of water will be forced into the tube *b*. This will be distributed over the entire area of the tube *b* in the form of a cylinder,

whose cubical contents must be 10 cubic inches, whose base has an area of 40 square inches, and whose altitude must be $\frac{10}{40} = \frac{1}{4}$ of an inch; that is, a movement of 10 inches of the piston *a* will cause a movement of $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch of the piston *b*.

Here is the old principle of machines: *The power multiplied by the distance through which it moves equals the weight multiplied by the distance through which it moves.*

Hence, if 1 pound on the piston *a* represents the power P, the equivalent weight W on *b* may be obtained from the equation $P \times 10 = W \times \frac{1}{4}$, or $10 = \frac{1}{4} W$, and $W = 40$.

Another familiar fact is also recognized, for the velocity ratio of P to W is $10 : \frac{1}{4}$, or 40. Since in any machine the weight equals the power multiplied by the velocity ratio, $W = P \times 40$, and when $P = 1$ pound, $W = 40$ pounds.

978. This principle is made use of in the hydraulic press

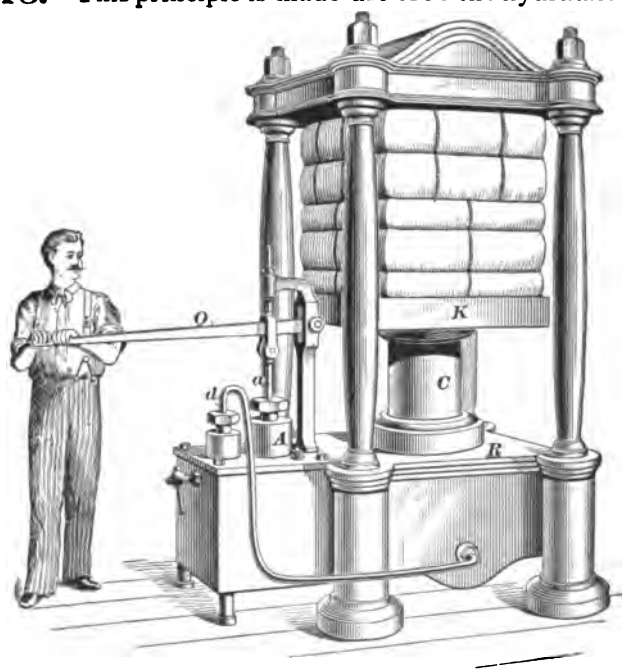


FIG. 163.

represented in Fig. 163. As the man depresses the lever *O*,

he forces down the piston a upon the water in the cylinder A. The water is forced through the bent tube d into the cylinder in which the large piston C works, and causes it to rise, thus lifting the platform K, and compressing the bales. If the area of a be 1 square inch, and that of C be 100 square inches, the velocity ratio will be 100.

If the length of the lever between the hand and the fulcrum is 10 times the length between the fulcrum and the piston a, the velocity ratio of the lever will be 10, and the total velocity ratio of the hand to the piston C will be 1,000.

Hence, a force of 100 pounds applied by the hand will raise $100 \times 1{,}000 = 100{,}000$ pounds. But, if the average movement of the hand per stroke is 10 inches, it will require $\frac{1{,}000}{10} = 100$ strokes to raise the platform 1 inch, and it is again seen that what is gained in power is lost in speed.

Applications of this principle are seen in the hydraulic machines used for forcing locomotive drivers on their axles, etc., and for testing the strength of boiler shells.

EXAMPLE.—A suspended vertical cylinder is tested for the tightness of its heads by filling it with water. A pipe whose inside diameter is $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch, and whose length is 20 feet, is screwed into a hole in the upper head, and then filled with water; what is the pressure per square inch on each head, if the cylinder is 40 inches in diameter and 60 inches long?

SOLUTION.—Area of heads $= 40^2 \times .7854 = 1{,}256.64$ sq. in.

Pressure per square inch on the bottom head, due to the weight of the water in the cylinder $= 1 \times 60 \times .03617 = 2.17$ lb. $(\frac{1}{4})^2 \times .7854 = .04909$ sq. in., the area of the pipe.

$.04909 \times 20 \times 12 \times .03617 = .426$ lb. = the weight of water in pipe = the pressure on a surface area of .04909 sq. in.

The pressure per square inch due to the water in the pipe is $\frac{1}{.04909} \times .426 = 8.68$ lb. per sq. in. upon the upper head. Ans.

The pressure per square inch on the lower head is $8.68 + 2.17 = 10.85$ lb. per sq. in. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—In the last example, if the pipe is fitted with a piston weighing $\frac{1}{4}$ of a pound, and a 5-pound weight is laid upon it, what is the pressure per square inch upon the upper head?

SOLUTION.—In addition to the pressure of .426 pound on the area of

.04909 sq. in., there is now an additional pressure upon this area of $5 + \frac{1}{4} = 5.25$ lb., and the total pressure upon this area is $.426 + 5.25 = 5.676$ lb.

The pressure per square inch is $\frac{1}{.04909} \times 5.676 = 115.6$ lb. Ans.

979. Pressure Upon Oblique Surfaces.—Heretofore, the pressure upon horizontal and vertical surfaces only has been considered. The pressure upon sides which are oblique to the bottom will now be considered.

According to the law of Pascal, the pressure which a fluid exerts upon a surface is at right angles to the surface; hence, in Fig. 164, the pressure acts in a direction indicated by the arrow-head on the line $C\ D$, and the lateral pressure on every square unit of area of the side $F\ H$ will be in the direction $C\ D$. According to the law for lateral pressure (Art. **975**), the total perpendicular pressure upon the side $F\ H$ will be: Area of side $F\ H \times \frac{1}{2}\ A\ H \times$ the weight of a cubic inch of the fluid.

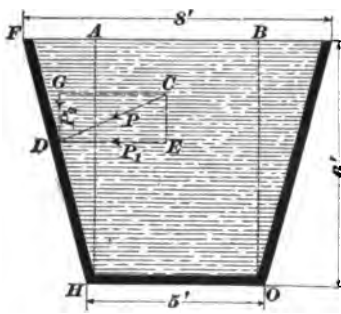


FIG. 164.

Let the line $C\ D$ represent this perpendicular pressure, and call it P. Now, resolve P into two components, one, P_1, acting horizontally, and the other, P_2, acting vertically. The angle $C\ D\ E = F\ H\ A$, for $C\ D$ is perpendicular to $F\ H$, and $E\ D$ is perpendicular to $A\ H$. (See Art. **692.**) Therefore, $P_1 = P \times \cos\ C\ D\ E = P \times \cos\ F\ H\ A$; but the cosine of $F\ H\ A$ is numerically equal to $A\ H$, which equals the projection of $F\ H$ on a line at right angles to $E\ D$.

The angle $G\ D\ C = E\ C\ D = A\ F\ H$, since $C\ D$ is perpendicular to $F\ H$, and $G\ D$ is perpendicular to $A\ F$; consequently, the vertical component $P_2 = P \cos\ G\ D\ C = P \cos\ A\ F\ H$. But the cosine $A\ F\ H$ is numerically equal to $A\ F$, which equals the projection of $F\ H$ upon a line at right angles to $G\ D$. Hence, the rule for finding the pressure exerted by a fluid in any direction upon a plane surface is:

Rule.—*The pressure exerted by a fluid in any direction upon* **any** *plane surface is equal to the weight of a prism of the fluid whose base is the projection of the surface at right angles to the direction considered, and whose height is the depth of the center of gravity of the surface below the level of the liquid.*

980. When the pressure per unit of area is so great that the pressure may be regarded as uniformly distributed over the area of the surface pressed against, the preceding rule holds good for any surface. Consequently, if a cylinder is filled with water, and a pressure is applied, the pressure upon any half section of the cylinder, as $A\ C\ B$ (Fig. 165), tending to separate one half from the other, is equal to the *projected area of the half cylinder (or the inside diameter times the length of the cylinder), multiplied by the depth of the center of gravity of the cylinder (or* $\frac{1}{2}\ d$*), multiplied by the weight of a cubic unit of water, plus the diameter of the shell multiplied by the pressure per square inch multiplied by the length of the cylinder.*

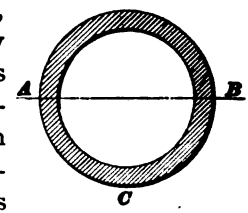


FIG 165.

If $d =$ the inside diameter in inches and $l =$ the length of the cylinder in inches, the pressure due to the weight of the water (when the cylinder is horizontal and filled with water) upon the half cylinder $A\ C\ B = d \times l \times \frac{d}{2} \times$ the weight of a cubic inch of water $= l \times \frac{d^2}{2} \times$ the weight of a cubic inch of water.

The pressure due to an additional pressure P_1 pounds per square inch $= l \times d \times P_1$. Thus, if a cylinder 60 inches long and 40 inches in diameter, lying horizontally, is filled with water, the pressure on any half section, as $A\ C\ B$, due to the weight of the water, will be found as follows:

$$60 \times \frac{40^2}{2} \times .03617 = 1{,}736.16 \text{ pounds.}$$

If there were an additional pressure per square inch of 50

pounds, the total pressure would be $60 \times 40 \times 50 + 1{,}736.16 = 121{,}736.16$ pounds.

If the cylinder were vertical instead of horizontal, the depth of the center of gravity would evidently be $\frac{1}{2}\,l$ below the surface, and the pressure tending to separate one half from the other, due to the weight of the water, would be $d \times l \times \frac{l}{2} \times$ weight of a cubic inch of water $= d \times \frac{l^2}{2} \times$ weight of a cubic inch of water.

Any additional pressure should be calculated as in the previous case.

EXAMPLE.—What would be the pressure due to the weight of the water if the cylinder in the last example were vertical?

SOLUTION.— $40 \times \frac{60^2}{2} \times .03617 = 2{,}604.24$ lb. Ans.

In the case of a sphere, the projected area is evidently the area of a circle whose diameter is the same as the diameter of the sphere. Hence, the pressure upon a hemisphere due to the weight of the water will be $d^2 \times .7854 \times \frac{d}{2} \times$ the weight of a cubic inch of water $= \frac{d^3}{2} \times .7854 \times$ the weight of a cubic inch of water.

The pressure upon a hemisphere whose diameter is 20 inches, when filled with water, due to the weight of the water only, will be $\frac{20^3}{2} \times .7854 \times .03617 = 113.63$ pounds.

For an additional pressure P in pounds per square inch, the pressure on the hemisphere due to this will be $d^2 \times .7854 \times P$.

EXAMPLE.—If the ends of the vessel shown in Fig. 164 make right angles with the bottom, and the distance between them, or length of the vessel, is 12 feet, what are the horizontal, vertical, and perpendicular pressures against the sides, both making equal angles with the bottom?

SOLUTION.—Apply rule, Art. **979.** In finding the horizontal pressure, the *direction considered* is that of the line ED; that is, horizontal. The projected area of the surface whose edge is FH projected at right angles to ED is $AH \times$ length of vessel $= 6 \times 12 = 72$ sq. ft.

Depth of center of gravity $= 6 \div 2 = 3$ ft. Hence, horizontal pressure $= 6 \times 12 \times 3 \times 62.5 = 13{,}500$ lb. Ans.

NOTE.—We multiply by 62.5, because all dimensions are in feet.

In a similar manner, the vertical pressure is found. Thus, *direction considered* is that of the line GD. Projected area of surface FH, when projected at right angles to GD, $= FA \times$ length of vessel. $FA = \frac{8-5}{2} = 1\frac{1}{2}$ ft. Vertical pressure $= 1\frac{1}{2} \times 12 \times 3 \times 62.5 = 3{,}375$ lb. Ans.

To find the perpendicular pressure, first find the length of the side FH. $FH = \sqrt{6^2 + (1\frac{1}{2})^2} = 6.1847$ ft. Perpendicular pressure $= 6.1847 \times 12 \times 3 \times 62.5 = 13{,}916$ lb., nearly. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—A sphere having a diameter of 30 inches is filled with water and subjected to an additional pressure of 75 pounds per square inch; what is the total pressure tending to separate one vertical half section of the sphere from its opposite half?

SOLUTION.—The pressure due to the weight of the water is $\frac{30^3}{2} \times .7854 \times .03617 = 383.5$ lb.

$30^2 \times .7854 \times 75 = 53{,}014.5$ lb. = additional pressure.

Total pressure tending to separate any two halves $= 53{,}014.5 + 383.5 = 53{,}398$ lb. Ans.

BUOYANT EFFECTS OF WATER.

981. In Fig. 166 (*a*) is shown a 6-inch cube entirely submerged in water. The lateral pressures are equal, and act in opposite directions. The upward pressure $= 6 \times 6 \times 21 \times .03617$; the downward pressure $= 6 \times 6 \times 15 \times .03617$, and the difference $= 6 \times 6 \times 6 \times .03617 =$ the volume of the cube in cubic inches $\times$ the weight of 1 cubic inch of water. That is, the upward pressure exceeds the downward pressure by the weight of a volume of water equal to the volume of the body.

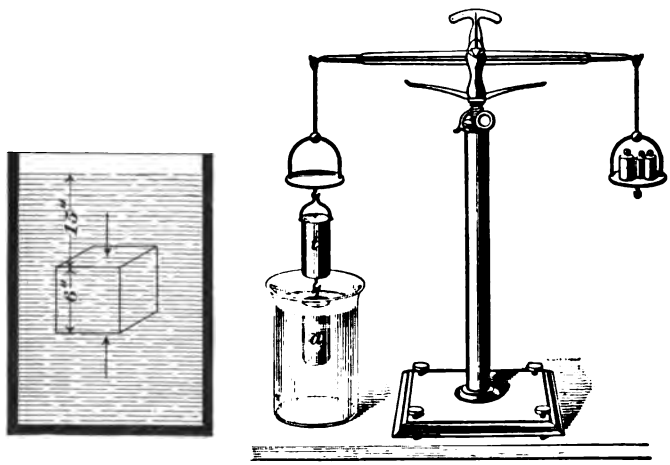
This excess of upward pressure over the downward pressure acts against gravity; consequently, *if a body be immersed in a fluid, it will lose in weight an amount equal to the weight of the fluid it displaces.* This is called the **principle of Archimedes,** because it was first stated by him.

Archimedes' principle may be experimentally demonstrated with the beam scales, as shown in Fig. 166 (*b*).

From one scale pan suspend a hollow cylinder of metal *t*, and below that a solid cylinder *a* of the same size as the

hollow part of the upper cylinder. Put weights in the other scale pan until they exactly balance the two cylinders. If *a* be immersed in water, the scale pan containing the weights will descend, showing that *a* has lost some of its weight. Now, fill *t* with water, and the volume of water that can be poured into *t* will equal that displaced by *a*. The scale pan that contains the weights will gradually rise until *t* is filled, when the scales balance again.

If the immersed body is lighter than the liquid, the up-



(*a*) (*b*)

FIG. 166.

ward pressure will cause it to rise and extend partly out of the liquid, until the weight of the body and the weight of the liquid displaced are equal. If the immersed body is heavier than the liquid, the downward pressure plus the weight of the body will be greater than the upward pressure, and the body will fall downwards until it touches bottom or meets an obstruction. If the weights of equal volumes of the liquid and the body are equal, the body will remain stationary, and be in equilibrium in any position or at any depth beneath the surface of the liquid.

An interesting experiment in confirmation of the above facts may be performed as follows: Drop an egg into a glass jar filled with fresh water. The mean density of the egg

being a little greater than that of water, the egg will fall to the bottom of the jar. Now, dissolve salt in the water, stirring it so as to mix the fresh and salt water. The salt water will presently become denser than the egg, and the egg will rise. Now, if fresh water be poured in until the egg and water have the same density, the egg will remain stationary in any position that it may be placed below the surface of the water.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. The diameter of the plunger of a hydraulic press used in an engineering establishment is 12". Water is forced into the cylinder of the press by means of a small pump having a plunger whose diameter is $\frac{3}{4}$", and stroke is 4". What pressure is exerted by the large plunger, when the force acting on the small plunger is 125 pounds?

Ans. 32,000 lb.

2. If the small plunger, in the last example, makes 96 working strokes per minute, (*a*) how long will it take the large plunger to move 8"? (*b*) What is the velocity ratio?

Ans. (*a*) $5\frac{1}{3}$ min. (*b*) 256 : 1.

3. A vertical pipe, 88 feet high, is filled with water; (*a*) what is the pressure on bottom? (*b*) If the diameter of the pipe is 8", what is the total pressure on a strip, $2\frac{1}{2}$" high, whose center of gravity is 21 feet from the bottom?

Ans. (*a*) 38.2 lb. per sq. in., nearly. (*b*) 1,827.03 lb.

4. A sphere, 16" in diameter, is submerged in water with its center of gravity 43 ft. 8" below the surface. What is (*a*) the total lateral pressure? (*b*) the total pressure?

Ans. (*a*) 7,620.8 lb. (*b*) 15,241.6 lb.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY.

982. In Art. **963** it was stated that the specific gravity of a body was the ratio between the weight of the body and the weight of an equal volume of water, but no methods were given for finding this ratio. Some of these methods will now be explained.

Archimedes' principle affords an easy and accurate method of finding the specific gravity of solids not easily soluble in water. Weigh the body in air; then, weigh the body in water, suspending it by a string, and attaching the string to a scale pan in place of the two cylinders shown in

Fig. 166 (*b*). *The difference between the two weights will be the weight of an equal volume of water. The ratio of the weight in air to the difference thus found will be the specific gravity.* The abbreviation for specific gravity is Sp. Gr.

Let W be the weight of the solid in air and W' the weight in water; then $W - W'$ = the weight of a volume of water equal to the volume of the solid, and

$$\text{Sp. Gr.} = \frac{W}{W - W'}. \qquad (27.)$$

EXAMPLE.—A body in air weighs 36¼ ounces and in water 30 ounces; what is its specific gravity?

SOLUTION.—Substituting in formula **27**,

$$\text{Sp. Gr.} = \frac{W}{W - W'} = \frac{36\frac{1}{4}}{36\frac{1}{4} - 30} = \frac{36\frac{1}{4}}{6\frac{1}{4}} = 5.8. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

983. If the body is lighter than water, a piece of iron or other heavy substance must be attached to it, sufficiently heavy to sink both. *Then, weigh both bodies in air and both in water. Weigh both separately in air, and weigh the heavier body in water. Subtract the weights of the bodies in air and in water, and the result will be the weight of a volume of the water equal to the volume of the two bodies. Find the difference of the weights of the heavy body in air and in water, and the result will be the weight of a volume of water equal to the volume of the heavy body. Subtract this last result from the former, and the result will be the weight of a volume of water equal to the volume of the light body. The weight of the light body in air divided by the weight of its equal volume of water is the specific gravity of the light body.*

Let W = weight of both bodies in air;
W' = weight of both bodies in water;
w = weight of light body in air;
W_1 = weight of heavy body in air;
W_2 = weight of heavy body in water.

Then, the specific gravity of the light body is given by

$$\text{Sp. Gr.} = \frac{w}{(W - W') - (W_1 - W_2)}. \qquad (27a.)$$

EXAMPLE.—A piece of cork weighs 4.8 ounces in air. A piece of cast iron weighs 36 ounces in air and 31 ounces in water. The weight of the iron and cork together in water is 15.8 ounces; what is the specific gravity of the cork? of the cast iron?

SOLUTION.—Substituting in formula **27***a* the values given,

$$\text{Sp. Gr.} = \frac{w}{(W - W') - (W_1 - W_2)} = \frac{4.8}{(40.8 - 15.8) - (36 - 31)} = \frac{4.8}{20} =$$

.24, the specific gravity of the cork. Ans.

By formula **27**, Sp. Gr. $= \frac{W}{W - W'} = \frac{36}{36 - 31} = 7.2$, the specific gravity of the iron. Ans.

984. To find the specific gravity of a liquid:

Weigh an empty flask; fill it with water, then weigh it and find the difference between the two results; this will equal the weight of the water. Then, weigh the flask filled with the liquid, and subtract the weight of the flask; the result is the weight of a volume of the liquid equal to the volume of the water. The weight of the liquid divided by the weight of the water is the specific gravity of the liquid.

Let W = the weight of the flask and liquid;

W' = the weight of the flask and water;

w = the weight of the flask.

Then, $$\text{Sp. Gr.} = \frac{W - w}{W' - w}. \qquad (\mathbf{27}b.)$$

EXAMPLE.—If the weight of the flask is 8 ounces, the weight when filled with water is 33 ounces, and when filled with alcohol 28 ounces, what is the specific gravity of the alcohol?

SOLUTION.—Substituting in formula **27***b*,

$$\text{Sp. Gr.} = \frac{W - w}{W' - w} = \frac{28 - 8}{33 - 8} = .8. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

The method of finding the specific gravity of gases is about the same as that just given for liquids, the air being pumped out of the flask by an air pump. As there are great difficulties attending the operation, the method will not be described.

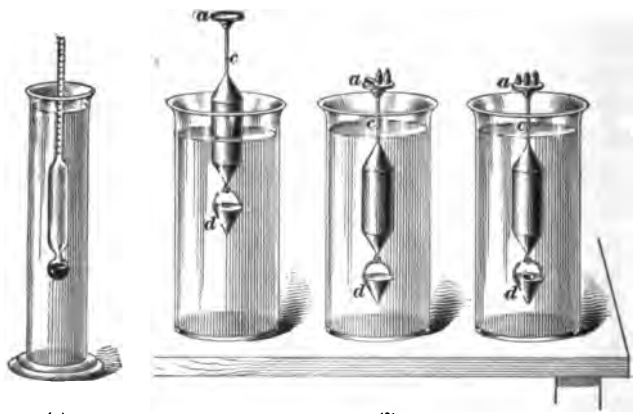
985. Instruments called **hydrometers** are in general use for determining quickly and accurately the specific

gravities of liquids and some forms of solids. They are of two kinds, viz.:

1. *Hydrometers of constant weight*, as **Beaume's.**
2. *Hydrometers of constant volume*, as **Nicholson's.**

A hydrometer of constant weight is shown in Fig. 167 (*a*). It consists of a glass tube, near the bottom of which are two bulbs. The lower and smaller bulb is loaded with mercury or shot, so as to cause the instrument to remain in a vertical position when placed in the liquid. The upper bulb is filled with air, and its volume is such that the whole instrument is lighter than an equal volume of water.

The point to which the hydrometer sinks when placed in



(*a*) (*b*)

FIG. 167.

water is usually marked, the tube being graduated above and below in such a manner that the specific gravity of the liquid can be read directly. It is customary to have two instruments, one with the zero point near the top of the stem for use in liquids heavier than water, and the other with the zero point near the bulb for use in liquids lighter than water.

These instruments are more commonly used for determining the degree of concentration or dilution of certain liquids, as acids, alcohol, milk, solutions of sugar, etc., rather than their actual specific gravities. They are then known as

acidometers, *alcoholometers*, *lactometers*, *saccharometers*, etc., according to the use to which they are put.

986. Nicholson's Hydrometer.—This instrument is shown in Fig. 167 (*b*). It consists of a hollow cylinder carrying at its lower end a basket *d*, heavy enough to keep the apparatus upright when placed in water. At the top of the cylinder is a vertical rod, to which is attached a shallow pan *a* for holding weights, etc. The cylinder must be of such size that the apparatus may be so much lighter than water that a certain weight W must be placed in the pan to sink it to a given point *c* on the rod. The body whose specific gravity it is desired to find must weigh less than W. It is placed in the pan *a*, and enough weight w is added to sink the point *c* to the water-level. It is evident that the weight of the given body is $W - w$. The body is now removed from the pan *a* and placed in the basket *d*, an additional weight being added to sink the point *c* to the water-level. Represent the weight now in the pan by W'. The difference $W' - w$ is the weight of a volume of water equal to the volume of the body. Hence,

$$\text{Sp. Gr.} = \frac{W - w}{W' - w}. \qquad (27c.)$$

EXAMPLE.—The weight necessary to sink the hydrometer to the point *c* is 16 ounces; the weight necessary when the body is in the pan *a* is 7.3 ounces, and when the body is in the basket *d*, 10 ounces; what is the specific gravity of the body?

SOLUTION.—Sp. Gr. $= \frac{W - w}{W' - w} = \frac{16 - 7.3}{10 - 7.3} = \frac{8.7}{2.7} = 3.222$. Ans.

987. Archimedes' principle gives a very easy and accurate method of finding the volume of an irregularly shaped body. Thus, subtract its weight in water from its weight in air, and divide by .03617; the result will be in cubic inches, or divide by 62.5 and the result will be in cubic feet.

If the specific gravity of the body is known, its cubical contents can be found by dividing its weight by its specific gravity, and then dividing again by either .03617 or 62.5.

EXAMPLE.—A certain body has a specific gravity of 4.38 and weighs 76 pounds; how many cubic inches are there in the body?

SOLUTION.— $\frac{76}{4.38 \times .03617} = 479.72$ cu. in. Ans.

Since the weight of a cubic foot of water varies for different temperatures, and with the amount of impurities it contains, it is necessary to have some standard when getting the specific gravity. This standard is pure distilled water at its maximum density, which occurs at a temperature of 39.2° Fahrenheit. At this temperature water weighs 62.425 pounds per cubic foot; but for ordinary calculations it is customary to take it as weighing 1,000 ounces, or 62.5 pounds, per cubic foot.

CAPILLARY ATTRACTION.

988. If a clean glass rod be placed vertically in water, the water will be drawn up around the tube. (See *a*, Fig. 168.) If the same rod be placed in mercury, the liquid will be depressed instead of raised. On examination, it will be found that water *wets the glass, while mercury does not.* If the rod be greased and placed in water, the surface of the

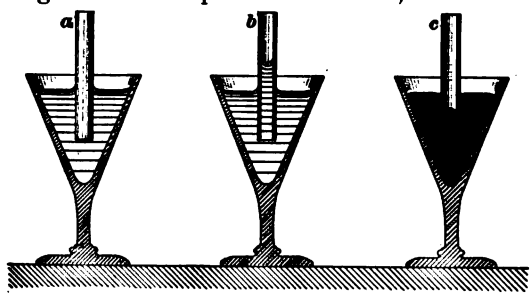


FIG. 168.

water will be depressed about the rod. If a clean lead or zinc strip be placed in mercury, the surface of the mercury will be *raised* about the strip.

In the last two cases, the greased rod came out *dry*, no water adhering to it, while the mercury did adhere to the lead or zinc strip, which came out *wet*.

In general, *all liquids that will wet the solids placed in*

them will be lifted, while those that do not will be pushed down.

These phenomena are called **capillary attraction,** because they are best shown in very fine or hair-like tubes. In Fig. 168, *b* is a glass tube in water, and *c* is a glass tube in mercury. The surface of the water in the tube *b* is *concave*, while the surface of the mercury in the tube *c* is *convex*.

The amount which a liquid will ascend or be depressed varies inversely as the diameter of the tube. Thus, water will rise twice as far in a tube $\frac{1}{32}$ of an inch in diameter as in one $\frac{1}{16}$ of an inch in diameter.

There are many illustrations of capillary action. It is capillary attraction that aids the ascent of sap in the pores of plants. It lifts the oil between the fibers of a lamp wick to the place of combustion. It enables cloth and sponges to take up moisture. It causes blotting paper to absorb ink; but when the paper is *sized*, its pores are filled, and the ink dries by evaporation. It is capable of exerting great force, as is shown in the effects produced by the swelling of wood and other substances when kept wet. Dry wooden wedges driven into a groove cut around a cylinder of stone, and occasionally wet, will cause it to break asunder. As the pores between the fibers of a rope run around it in spiral lines, the swelling produced by wetting a tight rope will cause the fibers to shorten, and to contract the rope with immense force.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. If a certain quantity of red lead weighs 5 pounds in air, and 4.441 pounds in water, what is its specific gravity? Ans. 8.94 +.

2. A piece of iron weighing 1 pound in air and .861 pound in water is attached to a piece of wood weighing 1 pound in air. When both bodies are placed in water they weigh .2 pound. What is (*a*) the specific gravity of the iron? (*b*) of the wood? Ans. { (*a*) 7.194. (*b*) .602.

3. An empty flask weighed 13 oz.; when filled with water, it weighed 22 oz., and when filled with sulphuric acid, 29.56 oz. What was the specific gravity of the acid? Ans. 1.84.

4. How many cubic feet of brick, having a specific gravity of 1.9, are required to weigh 260 pounds? Ans. 2.19 cu. ft., nearly.

HYDROKINETICS.

THE MEAN VELOCITY.

989. Hydrokinetics, also called **hydrodynamics** and **hydraulics,** treats of water in motion. The velocity is not the same at all points of the flow, unless all cross-sections of the pipe, or canal, are equal. That *velocity* which, being *multiplied by the area of the cross-section of the stream*, will equal the total quantity *discharged* is called the **mean velocity.**

Let $Q =$ the quantity in cubic feet which passes any section in 1 second;

$A =$ the area of the section in square feet;

$v_m =$ the mean velocity in feet per second.

Then, $$Q = A\,v_m, \qquad (28a.)$$

and $$v_m = \frac{Q}{A}. \qquad (28b.)$$

EXAMPLE.—The area of a certain cross-section of a stream is 27.9 square inches; the mean velocity of the water through this section is 51 feet per second; what is the quantity discharged, in cubic feet?

SOLUTION.— $Q = A\,v_m = \frac{27.9}{144} \times 51 = 9.9$ cu. ft. per sec. Ans.

NOTE.— 1 square foot = 144 square inches.

EXAMPLE.—In the last example, what would the mean velocity have been had the area of the cross-section been 36 square inches, to discharge the same quantity?

SOLUTION.— $v_m = \frac{Q}{A} = \frac{9.9}{\frac{36}{144}} = \frac{9.9 \times 144}{36} = 39.6$ ft. per sec. Ans.

VELOCITY OF EFFLUX.

990. If a small aperture is made in a vessel containing water, the velocity with which the water issues from the vessel is the same as if it had fallen from the level of the surface to the level of the aperture, all resistances being neglected. This velocity is called the **velocity of efflux.**

The *vertical height* of the level surface of the water above

the horizontal line through the center of the aperture is called the **head.** In Fig. 169, a is the head for the aperture A; b is the head for the aperture B, and c is the head for the aperture C.

Let $v =$ the velocity of efflux in feet per second;
$h =$ the head in feet at the aperture considered;
$W =$ the weight of the water in pounds flowing through this aperture per second.

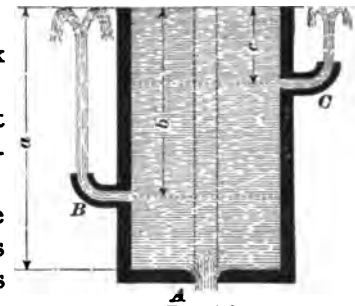


FIG. 169.

Were it not for the resistance of the air, friction, and the effect of the falling particles, the issuing water would spout to the level of the water in the vessel; that is, to a height equal to its head. The kinetic energy of the issuing water will be expressed by $\frac{Wv^2}{2g}$. The work it can do will be Wh.

Since the kinetic energy equals the work, $\frac{Wv^2}{2g} = Wh$, or $v = \sqrt{2gh}$; that is, *the velocity of efflux is the same as if the same weight of water had fallen through a height equal to its head.*

EXAMPLE.—A small orifice is made in a pipe 50 feet below the water level; what is the velocity of the issuing water?

SOLUTION.— $v = \sqrt{2gh} = \sqrt{2 \times 32.16 \times 50} = 56.7$ ft. per sec. Ans.

From the above formula, as in the laws of falling bodies, $h = \frac{v^2}{2g}$. Here, h is called the *head due to the velocity* v. Consequently, if the velocity of efflux is known, the head can be found.

EXAMPLE.—An issuing jet of water has a velocity of 60 feet per second; what is the head that causes it to flow with this velocity?

SOLUTION.— $h = \frac{v^2}{2g} = \frac{60^2}{2 \times 32.16} = 55.97$ feet. Ans.

991. Suppose that a tall vessel be fitted with a piston, and that it has an orifice near the bottom fitted with a stopcock. If an additional pressure be applied to the piston, it is evident that the velocity of efflux will be increased.

Let p be the pressure per unit of area at the level of the water, due to the additional pressure on the piston. If the unit of area is one square inch, the height of a column of water that will cause a pressure equal to p is $\frac{p}{.434}$ feet.

If the unit of area is 1 square foot, the height of a column of water is $\frac{p}{62.5}$ feet. Denote this height corresponding to the additional pressure by h_1. The original head of the water in the vessel is h; hence, $h_1 + h =$ the total head, and the velocity of efflux, when the cock is opened, will be

$$v = \sqrt{2g(h_1 + h)}. \qquad \textbf{(29.)}$$

The total head, $h_1 + h$, is called the **equivalent head,** and must, in all cases, be reduced to feet before substituting in the formula.

EXAMPLE.—The area of a piston fitting a vessel filled with water is 27.36 square inches. The total pressure on the piston is 80 pounds; the weight of the piston is 25 pounds, and the head of the water at the level of the orifice is 6 feet 10 inches; what is the velocity of the efflux, assuming that there are no resistances?

SOLUTION.— $80 + 25 = 105$ lb. = the total pressure on the upper surface of the liquid. $\frac{105}{27.36} = 3.8377$ lb. per sq. in.

$\frac{3.8377}{.434} = 8.8426$ feet = head in feet due to the pressure of 105 pounds = h_1. 6 ft. 10 in. = 6.8333 ft. = h.

$v = \sqrt{2g(h_1 + h)} = \sqrt{2g(8.8426 + 6.8333)} = \sqrt{2 \times 32.16 \times 15.6759} =$ 31.75 ft. per sec. Ans.

992. When water issues from the side of a vessel, it will be subjected to the same laws that govern projectiles. The range may be calculated in the same manner by taking the *velocity of efflux* as the *initial velocity* of the projectile.

The range may be calculated more conveniently by the following formula :

$$R = \sqrt{4hy}, \qquad (30.)$$

in which R is the range, h is the head, or equivalent head at the level of the orifice, and y is the vertical height of the orifice above the point where the water strikes, all dimensions being in feet. In Fig. 170, the upper surface of the

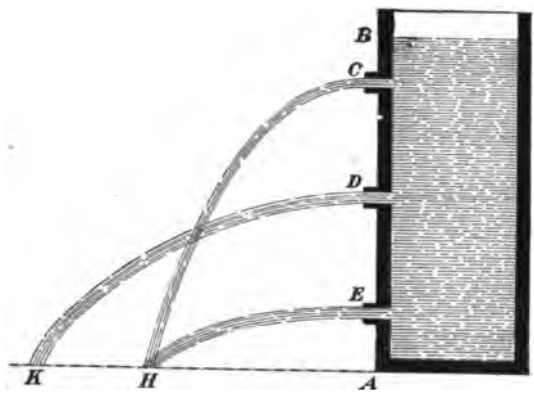


FIG. 170.

water is free. For the orifice E, $h = BE$ and $y = EA$; for the orifice C, $h = BC$ and $y = CA$.

The greatest range is obtained when $h = y$; that is, when the orifice is half way between the upper surface of the water and the level of the place where the stream strikes. If two orifices are situated equally distant from the middle orifice, giving the greatest range, as C and E in Fig. 170, the ranges of the water issuing from them will be equal.

EXAMPLE.—The vertical height above the ground of the surface of the water in a vessel is 12 feet. If an orifice is situated 4 feet from the upper surface, what is the range? What is the greatest range? Where is the other point of equal range?

SOLUTION.— $R = \sqrt{4hy} = \sqrt{4 \times 4 \times 8} = 11.31$ ft., nearly. Ans.

Greatest range $= \sqrt{4 \times 6 \times 6} = 12$ feet. Ans.

$6 - 4 = 2$; hence, the point of equal range is $6 + 2 = 8$ feet below the surface of the water.

PROOF.—Range $= \sqrt{4hy} = \sqrt{4 \times 8 \times 4} = 11.31$ ft., as before.

993. When the water flows through an orifice of large size in the bottom of the vessel, compared with the area of the base, a different rule must be used from that given above. In Fig. 171, suppose that the area of the orifice in the bottom of the vessel is a, and that the area of the bottom is A; then, the velocity v is expressed by the formula

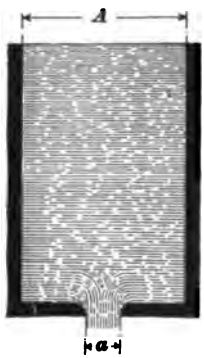


FIG. 171.

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2gh}{1 - \frac{a^2}{A^2}}}. \qquad \textbf{(31.)}$$

That is, *the velocity of efflux from the bottom of a vessel, in feet per second, equals the square root of 2 g times the head, divided by 1 minus the ratio of the square of the area of the orifice to the square of the area of the bottom.*

The value of v given in the last formula is always greater than the theoretical velocity that would be produced by the head h, where h is the depth of the orifice below the surface of the water in the vessel. This increase is due to the fact that, in order to keep the vessel full, that is, in order to keep the head h constant, a quantity of water must flow in at the top equal to the quantity discharged at the orifice. The head equivalent to the velocity of this entering water must be added to the head h in order to obtain the actual head producing flow from the orifice, and the value of v given by the formula is the velocity produced by the sum of the two heads.

If the area of the cross-section of the base is more than 20 times the area of the orifice, use the formula $v = \sqrt{2gh}$. That is,

Rule.—*The velocity of efflux from a small orifice, when the cross-sectional area of the vessel is equal to, or more than, twenty times the area of the orifice, equals the square root of 2 g times the head.*

EXAMPLE.—A vessel has a rectangular cross-section, 11 × 14 inches, and the upper surface of the water is 14 feet above the bottom. If an

orifice 4 inches square is made in the bottom of the vessel, what is the velocity of the efflux?

SOLUTION.—Area of the cross-section is $14 \times 11 = 154$ sq. in. Area of orifice is $4 \times 4 = 16$ sq. in. Since $154 \div 16 = 9\frac{5}{8}$, the area of the base is less than 20 times the area of the orifice; hence, using formula **31**,

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2gh}{1 - \frac{a^2}{A^2}}} = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 32.16 \times 14}{1 - \frac{16^2}{154^2}}} = 30.17 \text{ ft. per sec. Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE.—If the orifice had been 2 inches square in the above example, what would the velocity of efflux have been? Also, if it had been 8 inches square?

SOLUTION.— 2 inches $\times$ 2 inches $= 4$ sq. in., or the area of the orifice. Since $154 \div 4 = 38\frac{1}{2}$, the area of the base is greater than 20 times the area of the orifice; hence, using the last rule,

$$v = \sqrt{2gh} = \sqrt{2 \times 32.16 \times 14} = 30.008 \text{ feet per second. Ans.}$$

8 inches $\times$ 8 inches $= 64$ square inches, or the area of the orifice in the second case.

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2gh}{1 - \frac{a^2}{A^2}}} = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 32.16 \times 14}{1 - \frac{64^2}{154^2}}} = 32.99 \text{ feet per second; practically, 33 feet per second. Ans.}$$

THE STANDARD ORIFICE.

994. An orifice in the side or bottom of a vessel or reservoir, and at a distance below the surface of the water, is called a **standard orifice** when the flow through it takes place in such a manner that the jet touches the opening on the inside edge only. A hole in a thin plate, as at (*a*), Fig. 172, is such an orifice, as is also a square-edged hole in the side of the vessel, as at (*b*), when the thickness of the side is not so great that the jet touches it beyond the inner edge. If the sides of the reservoir are very thick, a standard orifice can be made by beveling the outer edges, as shown at (*c*).

When a jet issues from such an orifice, it *contracts* so that the diameter is least at a distance from the edge equal to about one-half the diameter of the orifice. Beyond this point the jet gradually enlarges, and gradually becomes broken by the effect of the resistance of the air.

The **coefficient of contraction** is the number by

which the area of the orifice is to be multiplied in order to obtain the least cross-section of the jet. Experiments on jets from standard orifices have given values for this coefficient varying from .57 to .71. The most probable mean value is about .62.

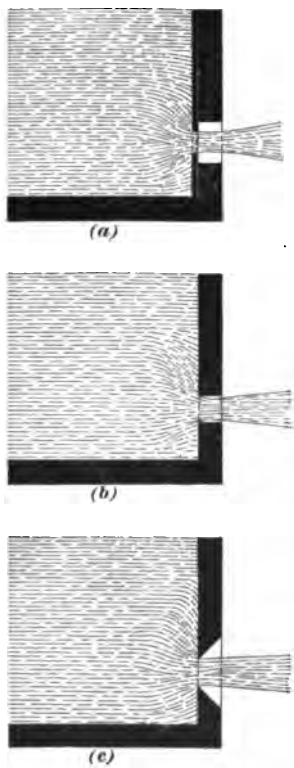


FIG. 172.

The **coefficient of velocity** is the number by which the theoretical velocity must be multiplied in order to obtain the actual maximum velocity, or velocity where the cross-section of the jet is least.

If v is the theoretical velocity, v' the actual velocity, and c' the coefficient of velocity, we have the formula

$$v' = c'\,v = c'\sqrt{2gh}. \qquad \textbf{(32.)}$$

It is found that c' is greater for high heads than for low, and values ranging from .975 to nearly 1 have been obtained by different experimenters. An average value usually taken is .98.

EXAMPLE.—What is the actual velocity of discharge from a small standard orifice in the side of a vessel, if the head is 20 feet?

SOLUTION.—

$v' = c'\sqrt{2gh} = .98\sqrt{2 \times 32.16 \times 20} =$ 35.15 ft. per second. Ans.

Use of Logarithms.—Most of the problems occurring in hydraulics involve the operations of multiplication, division, involution, and evolution in such a way that they are most readily solved by the use of logarithms. The student should, therefore, review the section on logarithms carefully and learn to apply them at once in the solution of the problems given in this section.

EXAMPLE.—Solve the last example by the use of logarithms.

SOLUTION.—First find the logarithm of the product of the numbers under the radical sign from the table of logarithms, as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \log 2 &= .30103 \\ \log 32.16 &= 1.50732 \\ \log 20 &= 1.30103 \\ \hline & 3.10938 \end{aligned}$$

The logarithm of the square root of the above product is found by dividing its logarithm by 2; thus,

$$\log \sqrt{2 \times 32.16 \times 20} = 3.10938 \div 2 = 1.55469.$$

Finally, the logarithm of the product of .98 multiplied by the quantity under the radical sign is the sum of the logarithm of .98 and 1.55469, or $\bar{1}.99123 + 1.55469 = 1.54592$. From the table of Logarithms, the number corresponding to this logarithm is found to be 35.15. Ans.

It was shown in Art. **989** that the theoretical discharge from an orifice whose area is a is $Q = a\,v_m$, where v_m is the theoretical mean velocity due to the head.

The actual discharge is, in the same way, $Q' = a'\,v'$, in which a' is the area and v' the mean velocity where the cross-section of the jet is least.

The **coefficient of discharge** is the number by which the theoretical discharge is to be multiplied to give the actual discharge. Let c'' be this factor; then $Q' = c''\,Q = a'\,v' = .62\,a \times .98\,v = .6076\,a\,v = .6076\,a\sqrt{2\,g\,h}$.

Since the coefficients of contraction and velocity vary, it is evident that the coefficient of discharge varies also. As an average value we may take $c'' = .61$, and we then have

$$Q' = c''\,Q = c''\,a\sqrt{2\,g\,h} = .61\,a\sqrt{2\,g\,h}. \qquad \textbf{(33.)}$$

EXAMPLE.—What will be the actual discharge from a circular standard orifice 3 inches in diameter under a head of 25 feet?

SOLUTION.—The area of a 3-inch circle $= .7854 \times 3^2 = 7.0686$ square inches $= \dfrac{7.0686}{144} = .049$ square foot.

$Q' = c''\,a\sqrt{2\,g\,h} = .61 \times .049\sqrt{2 \times 32.16 \times 25} = 1.1985$ cu. ft. per second. Ans.

995. Standard orifices are sometimes used to measure the quantity of water flowing in a stream or from a pipe or other channel. When used for this purpose they are either **circular, square,** or **rectangular.** The coefficient of

discharge varies for each of these forms, and is also different for different heads and areas of orifice.

996. For a circular orifice the discharge in cubic feet per second may be obtained from the formula

$$Q = .7854\, d^2 c \sqrt{2gh} = 6.299\, d^2 c \sqrt{h}. \qquad (34a.)$$

Here d is the diameter of the orifice in feet, h the head on the center of the orifice in feet, and c a coefficient that depends on d and h and is to be taken from the table of Coefficients for Circular Vertical Orifices.

For values of d and h between those given in the table the value of c may be found by interpolation, but for most cases the value of c corresponding to the nearest values of d and h will be near enough for practical purposes.

EXAMPLE.—What is the discharge from a circular orifice 1½ inches in diameter, if the head is 7 feet?

SOLUTION.—The diameter of the orifice is .125 foot; from the table of Coefficients for Circular Vertical Orifices, the coefficient is found to be .600 for an orifice .10 foot in diameter under a head of 6 feet, and the same for a head of 8 feet. In the same way, the coefficient for a diameter of .2 foot is .598 from 6 feet to 8 feet head. For an orifice .125 foot in diameter, the coefficient is $.600 - (.002 \times .25) = .5995$.

From the formula

$$Q = 6.299 \times .125^2 \times .5995 \sqrt{7} = .15611 \text{ cubic foot per second.}$$

If we use the nearest value of c given in the table, the result is

$$Q = 6.299 \times .125^2 \times .6 \sqrt{7} = .15623,$$

a result that differs from the first by about .08 of 1 per cent., which is much less than the probable errors in measuring h and d.

NOTE.—The values of the constants and coefficients used in the formulas for the flow of water are average values determined from experiment, and are, therefore, only approximately correct. In practice it is useless to use more than four decimal places, and in most cases three are enough.

997. The discharge for a square vertical orifice is given by the formula

$$Q = c\, d^2 \sqrt{2gh} = 8.02\, c\, d^2 \sqrt{h}. \qquad (34b.)$$

Here d is the length in feet of one side of the orifice, h is the head in feet on the center of the orifice, Q is the discharge in cubic feet per second, and c is a coefficient that depends on

h and d. The values of c for different values of h and d are to be taken from the table of Coefficients for Square Vertical Orifices.

998. For rectangular orifices the discharge in cubic feet per second is given by the formula

$$Q = c \times \tfrac{2}{3} b \sqrt{2g} (\sqrt{h_2^3} - \sqrt{h_1^3}), \qquad (\mathbf{34}c.)$$

in which b is the breadth of the orifice, h_1 the head measured from the upper edge of the orifice, and h_2 the head measured from the lower edge, all in feet.

If d is the depth of the orifice in feet, and h the head in feet, on its center, the discharge, when h is greater than 4 d, may be taken from the formula

$$Q = c\,b\,d\sqrt{2gh} = 8.02\,c\,b\,d\sqrt{h}. \qquad (\mathbf{34}d.)$$

For approximate computations the value of c that may be used in formulas **34**c and **34**d is $c = .615$. The table of Coefficients for Rectangular Vertical Orifices gives average values of c for orifices 1 foot wide with different values of d and h.

EXAMPLE.—A rectangular orifice has a depth $d = 2$ feet and a breadth $b = 3$ feet. The depth of the top edge below the surface of the water is 5 feet; what is the discharge in cubic feet per minute?

SOLUTION.—Use formula **34**c; $h_1 = 5$; $h_2 = 5 + 2 = 7$; $Q = .615 \times \tfrac{2}{3} b\sqrt{2g}(\sqrt{h_2^3} - \sqrt{h_1^3}) = .615 \times \tfrac{2}{3} \times 3 \times \sqrt{2 \times 32.16}(\sqrt{7^3} - \sqrt{5^3}) = 72.41$ feet per second $= 72.41 \times 60 = 4{,}344.6$ cu. ft. per minute. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—A dam across a stream has an opening closed by a sluice gate, see Fig. 173 (a), in such a way that the gate when opened forms a practical standard orifice of rectangular cross-section. The width of the opening is 1 foot, and it is found that the dam is kept just filled when the gate is opened 9 inches. What is the rate of flow of the stream, if the center of the opening is 6 feet below the surface of the water in the dam?

SOLUTION.—From the table of Coefficients for Standard Rectangular Vertical Orifices, we find that the value of c' for an orifice 1 foot wide and .75 foot in depth to be .604 when the head is 6 feet. Since the head is more than four times the depth, formula **34**d may be used, from which we have

$$Q = 8.02 \times .604 \times 1 \times .75\sqrt{6} = 8.9 \text{ cu. ft. per second. Ans.}$$

999. If the orifice is made at the side of the reservoir, as shown at *a*, Fig. 173 (*b*), or at the bottom, as shown at *b*, the contraction of the steam is reduced and the discharge increased. Experiments show an increase in the discharge

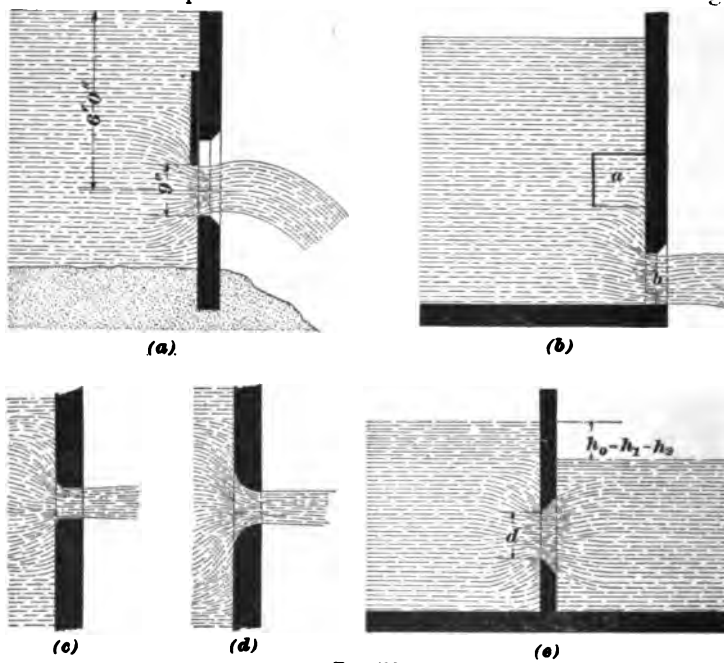


FIG. 173.

of about 3.5 per cent. for *a*, and from 6 to 12 per cent. for *b*. These values have not been accurately determined, and where accurate measurements are to be made the orifice should always be arranged as shown in Fig. 172.

If the inner edge of the orifice is rounded, as shown in Fig. 173 (*c*) and (*d*), the coefficient of discharge is increased, and may be made nearly 1, if the edge is rounded as shown at (*d*). Orifices with rounded edges should never be used for measuring water.

An example of a **submerged rectangular orifice** is shown in Fig. 173 (*e*). The discharge is given by the formula

$$Q = .615\, b\, d \sqrt{2 g h_0}, \qquad (34e.)$$

where h_o is the difference in level of the water on the two sides of the orifice, b is the breadth of the orifice, and d its depth, all in feet.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. What is the discharge in cubic feet per minute from a standard circular orifice whose diameter is $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches, if the head is 20 feet? Ans. 43.71 cu. ft. per min.

2. A square orifice in the side of a reservoir measures .2 foot on each side, and the head on the center is 22 feet; what is the discharge in cubic feet per second? Ans. .9058 cu. ft. per sec.

3. What is the discharge from a rectangular orifice 1 foot wide, if the head on the upper edge is $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet and the depth of the orifice $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches? Ans. 7.302 cu. ft. per sec.

4. What is the approximate discharge from a rectangular gate in the side of a dam when the breadth is 15 inches, the depth 6 inches, and the head on the upper edge $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet? Use the approximate coefficient of discharge, $c = .615$. Ans. 6.72 cu. ft. per sec.

5. What is the discharge from a submerged rectangular orifice $1\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide and 1 foot deep, if the difference in the level of the water on the two sides of the orifice is $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet? Ans. 13.84 cu. ft. per sec.

WEIRS.

1000. A **weir** is an obstruction placed across a stream for the purpose of diverting the water, so as to make it flow through a desired channel. This channel may be a notch or opening in the obstruction itself, and it has been found that, when properly constructed and carefully managed, such a weir forms one of the most convenient and accurate devices for measuring the discharge of streams.

Many careful experiments have been made to determine the quantity of water that will flow over different forms of weirs under varying conditions. As the result of these experiments two forms have come to be generally used, and the amount of flow in any particular case is determined by simple formulas and tabulated coefficients that depend on observed conditions.

1001. A **weir with end contractions** is shown in Fig. 174 (a). The notch is narrower than the channel

through which the water flows; this causes a contraction at the bottom and at the two ends of the issuing stream.

1002. A **weir without end contractions,** also called a **wier with end contractions suppressed,** is

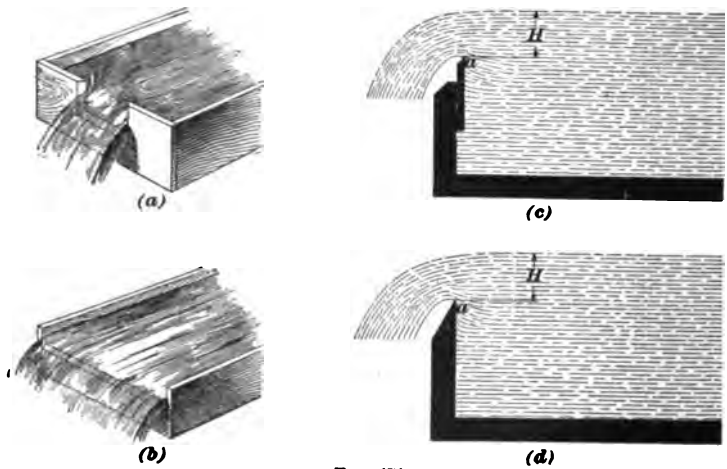


FIG. 174.

shown in Fig. 174 (*b*). In this case the notch is as wide as the channel leading to it; consequently, the issuing stream is contracted at the bottom only.

1003. The edge *a* of the notch, Fig. 174 (*c*) and (*d*), is called the **crest of the weir.** The inner edges of the notch are made sharp, so that the water in passing through it touches only along a line. For very accurate work the edges, both vertical and horizontal, should be made with a thin plate of metal having a sharp inner edge, as shown in Fig. 174 (*c*); but for ordinary work, the edges of the board in which the notch is cut may be chamfered off to an angle of about 30°, as shown at (*d*).

The bottom edge of the notch must be straight and set perfectly level, and the sides must be set carefully at right angles to the bottom.

The head *H* producing the flow, Fig. 174 (*c*) and (*d*), is the vertical distance from the **crest** to the surface of the

water. It must be measured at a point so far from the crest that the curvature of the flowing water will not affect the measurement.

The distance from the crest of the weir to the bottom of the feeding canal or reservoir should be at least three times the head; and, with a weir having end contractions, the distance from the vertical edges to the sides of the canal should also be at least three times the head.

The water must approach the weir quietly, and with little velocity. It is sometimes necessary to provide means for reducing the velocity of the water as it approaches the weir.

1004. Fig. 175 shows a simple form of weir located in a small stream for the purpose of measuring its discharge.

A plank dam is put across the stream at a convenient point, care being taken to prevent any leakage under or

FIG. 175.

around the dam. The length of the notch is great enough to provide for the flow with a head of between .5 and 1.5 feet. A stake E is driven firmly into the ground at a point about 6 feet up the stream from the weir and near the

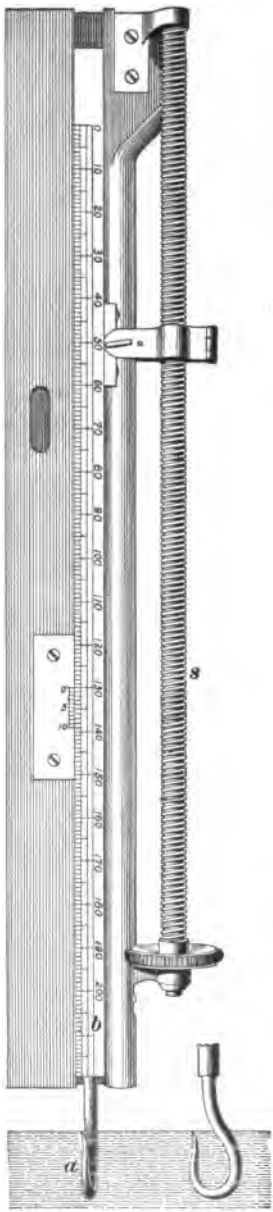


FIG. 176.

bank, as shown. The stake is driven until its top is at exactly the same level as the crest *B*. The head is the vertical distance from the top of this stake to the surface of the water and it may be measured by a square or two-foot rule, as shown in the figure.

THE HOOK GAUGE.

1005. For accurate weir measurements, such as are made in testing the efficiency of water-wheels, the head on the crest is measured with an instrument called a **hook gauge;** see Fig. 176. A hook *a* is attached to the lower end of a sliding scale *b*. The scale is graduated to hundredths of a foot and is provided with a vernier by means of which it can be read to thousandths. The scale and hook can be raised or lowered by means of the screw *s*. The instrument is fastened securely to solid and substantial beams or masonry, at a point over the water a few feet up-stream from the weir, and where the surface of the water is quiet and protected from the influence of wind or eddies. The gauge is set so that the scale will read zero when the point of the hook is at the same level as the crest of the weir. When the point of the hook is raised to the surface of the water, it lifts the surface slightly before breaking through. To use

the gauge, start with the hook below the surface of the water and raise it slowly until a slight pimple, caused by the lifting of the surface, appears over the point; the reading of the scale for this position of the hook gives the head on the crest.

THE DISCHARGE OF WEIRS.

1006. When the dimensions of the notch and the head on the crest of a weir are known, the discharge can be computed by means of the following formulas and tables of coefficients:

Let l = length of the weir;
H = measured head;
v = velocity with which the water approaches the weir;
h = head equivalent to the velocity with which the water approaches the weir;
c = coefficient of discharge;
Q = theoretical discharge;
Q' = actual discharge.

The theoretical discharge per second is

$$Q = \tfrac{2}{3}\sqrt{2g}\, l\,(H + h)^{\frac{3}{2}}. \qquad (35a.)$$

If there is no velocity of approach, this becomes

$$Q = \tfrac{2}{3}\sqrt{2g}\, l\, H^{\frac{3}{2}}. \qquad (35b.)$$

The actual discharge for weirs without end contractions is given by the formulas

$$Q' = c\,(\tfrac{2}{3}\sqrt{2g})\, l\,(H + \tfrac{4}{3}h)^{\frac{3}{2}} = 5.347\, c\, l\,(H + \tfrac{4}{3}h)^{\frac{3}{2}}, \qquad (36a.)$$

and $$Q' = c\,(\tfrac{2}{3}\sqrt{2g})\, l\, H^{\frac{3}{2}} = 5.347\, c\, l\, H^{\frac{3}{2}}. \qquad (36b.)$$

For weirs with end contractions, the formulas are

$$Q' = c\,\tfrac{2}{3}\sqrt{2g}\, l\,(H + 1.4\,h)^{\frac{3}{2}} = 5.347\, c\, l\,(H + 1.4\,h)^{\frac{3}{2}}, \qquad (37a.)$$

and $$Q' = c\,\tfrac{2}{3}\sqrt{2g}\, l\, H^{\frac{3}{2}} = 5.347\, c\, l\, H^{\frac{3}{2}}. \qquad (37b.)$$

EXAMPLE.—What is the discharge of the stream in Fig. 175, if the length of the weir is 5 feet, the head $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches, the coefficient of discharge .603, and the velocity of approach = 0?

SOLUTION.—Applying formula **37***b*, we have

$$Q' = .603 \times 5.347 \times 5 \times .875^{\frac{3}{2}} = 13.1934 \text{ cu. ft. per second.} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

1007. The **velocity of approach** is the mean velocity with which the water flows through the canal leading to the weir. If A is the area of the cross-section of the water in this canal, we have $v = \frac{Q'}{A}$, from which we see that Q' must be determined approximately by assuming $v = 0$, and then use this value of Q' to find v. V may also be measured approximately by means of a float on the water in the canal or stream.

Having found v, we have the equivalent head, $h = \frac{v^2}{2g} = .01555\ v^2$. See Arts. **990** and **991.** Since v is small with a properly constructed weir, it is usually neglected, unless great accuracy is required.

The table of Coefficients for Weirs with End Contractions gives values of the coefficient of discharge c for weirs with end contractions and different values of H and l.

The table of Coefficients for Weirs Without End Contractions gives values for c for weirs without end contractions.

Weirs with end contractions are more often used and are to be recommended in most cases.

Values of c for values of H and l between those given in the tables can be found by interpolating, assuming that the variation is uniform between the values given.

EXAMPLE 1.—What is the discharge from a weir with end contractions under the following conditions: The length of the weir is 4 feet $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and the measured head $10\frac{1}{16}$ inches? Assume that there is no velocity of approach.

SOLUTION.—The length l of the weir = 4 feet $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches = 4.125 feet, and the head $H = 10\frac{1}{16}$ inches = .84 foot. From the table of Coefficients for Weirs with End Contractions, we find the coefficient $c = .600$ for a weir 3 feet long and a head of .8 foot and $c = .604$ for a weir 5 feet long with the same head. This is an increase in the coefficient of $(.604 - .600) \div 2 = .002$ for each increase of 1 foot in length. The coefficient

for a weir 4.125 feet long is, therefore, $.600 + (1.125 \times .002) = .60225$. The rate of increase for a head of .9 foot is $(.603 - .598) \div 2 = .0025$, and the coefficient for a weir 4.125 feet long is $.598 + (1.125 \times .0025) = .60081$. The decrease in coefficient for an increase in head of .1 foot is $.60225 - .60081 = .00144$ and for an increase in head of .04 foot the decrease is $.00144 \times \frac{.04}{.1} = .000576$. This subtracted from the coefficient for .8 foot gives $.60225 - .000576 = .601674$ as the coefficient of discharge for a weir 4.125 feet long and a head of .84 foot. Using but four decimal places, the discharge is

$$Q' = 5.347 \times .6017 \times 4.125 \times .84^{\frac{3}{2}} = 10.22 \text{ cu. ft. per second. Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE 2.—If the canal leading to the weir of example 1 is 10 feet wide and 3 feet deep below the crest of the weir, what is the head equivalent to the velocity of approach?

SOLUTION.—The depth of water in the canal is the depth below the crest plus the head = 3.84 feet. The area of the cross-section of the water in the canal is $A = 3.84 \times 10 = 38.4$ square feet, and the velocity is $v = \frac{10.22}{38.4} = .266$ foot per second. The head h equivalent to the velocity v is

$$h = \frac{v^2}{2g} = \frac{.266^2}{64.32} = .0011 \text{ foot. Ans.}$$

NOTE.—This value of h is so small that its influence on the discharge is much less than the probable errors in measuring the head H, and so need not be considered in finding the discharge.

FLOW THROUGH TUBES.

THE STANDARD TUBE.

1008. A **standard tube** or an **adjutage** is a tube whose length is equal to $2\frac{1}{2}$ or 3 times its diameter. When water flows from a reservoir through such a tube, as shown in Fig. 177 (h), the jet contracts when it first leaves the reservoir, then expands again until it fills the tube near its outer end, this contraction and expansion resembling that of the jet from a standard orifice.

Owing to the contraction, an annular space is left between the jet and the tube. When the expansion of the jet is sufficient to fill the outer end of the tube, as shown in the figure, the current of water carries some of the air from the annular space along with it, thus producing a partial vacuum.

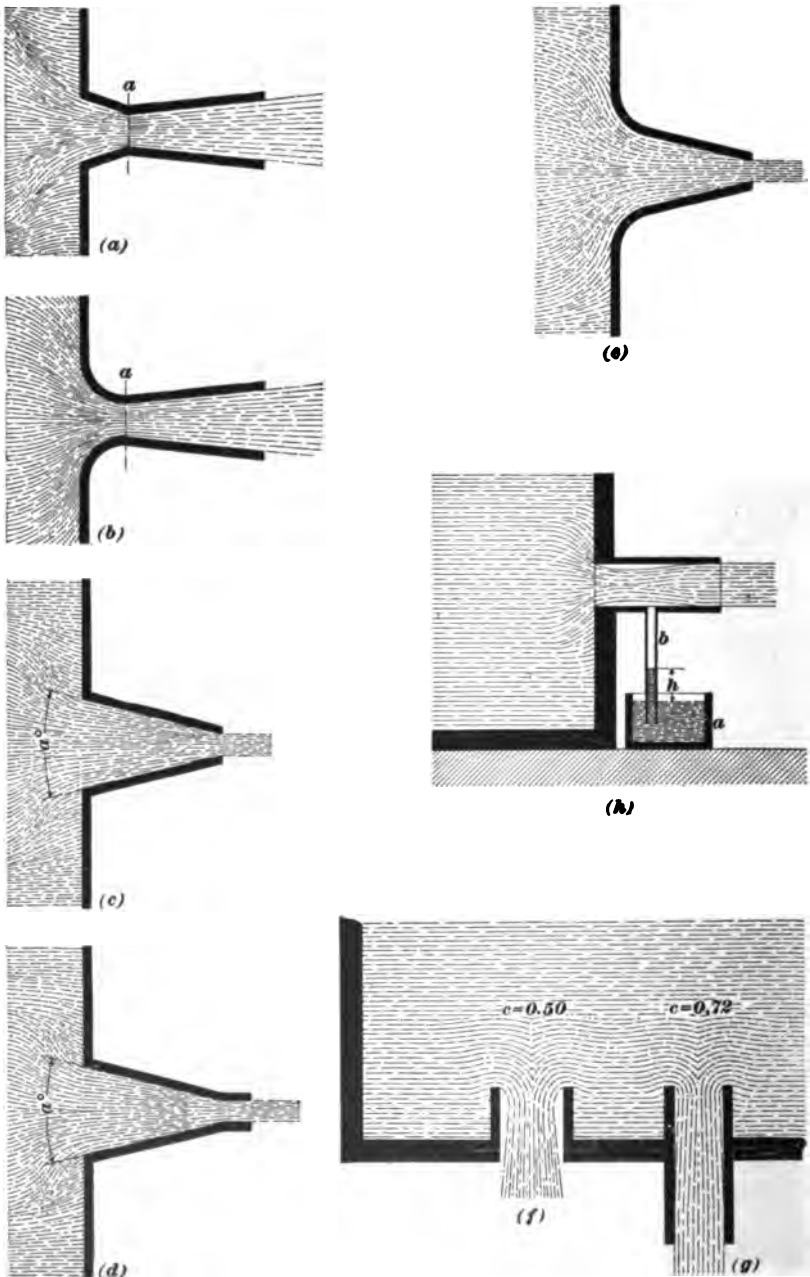


FIG. 177.

If a small branch b is carried down into a cup of mercury a, the pressure of the atmosphere will force mercury into b to a height h that depends on the vacuum in the annular space around the jet, and if a small hole be made in the tube it will be found that air is drawn in through the hole. On account of the difficulty in maintaining uniform conditions, which makes the value of the coefficient of discharge uncertain, tubes are seldom used for measuring the flow of water.

The *coefficient of discharge* for a standard tube is greater than for a standard orifice. An average value is

$$c = .82.$$

The jet as it issues from the tube has the same area as the tube; hence, the coefficient of velocity is the same as the coefficient of discharge.

CONICAL TUBES.

1009. For **conical tubes,** see Fig. 177 (c) and (d), the coefficient of discharge reaches a maximum value of .946 when the angle $a°$ of the cone is 13° 24′. The coefficient of velocity increases with the angle of the cone until it becomes about the same as the coefficient for the standard orifice. If the inner edge of the tube is well rounded, as at (e), Fig. 177, the coefficient of discharge is still further increased and may be made nearly 1.

COMPOUND TUBES.

1010. Examples of **compound tubes** are shown in Fig. 177 (a) and (b). Experiments have shown that the velocity through the minimum section a is greater than the theoretical velocity due to the head. The values of the coefficient of discharge for the section a vary greatly under different conditions of head and proportions of tubes. Under certain conditions values as high as 2.43 have been obtained.

1011. Inward Projecting Tubes.—When a tube projects into a reservoir, as shown in Fig. 177 (f) and (g), the contraction is increased and the discharge greatly

reduced. The coefficient of discharge for the inwardly projecting orifice, Fig. 177 (f), is about 0.50, and for the tube, Fig. 177 (g), 0.72.

THE ENERGY OF A JET.

1012. The **energy in a jet of water** is a measure of the theoretical work which the jet can do.

If W is the weight of water per second passing a given cross-section of the jet, and v the velocity in feet per second at that cross-section, the energy K is expressed by the formula

$$K = Wh = W\frac{v^2}{2g}. \qquad (38a.)$$

Here h is the head that would produce a velocity v if the water were to fall freely through a vacuum.

If a is the area of the jet and w the weight of a cubic unit of water, we have $W = w\,a\,v$, and the equation for K becomes

$$K = W\frac{v^2}{2g} = w\,a\,v\frac{v^2}{2g} = \frac{w\,a\,v^3}{2g}. \qquad (38b.)$$

These formulas show that with a given weight of water passing per second the energy of the jet is proportional to the square of the velocity, and with a given area of jet the energy is proportional to the cube of the velocity.

EXAMPLE 1.—What is the theoretical work that can be done by a jet through which $2\frac{1}{2}$ cubic feet of water passes with a velocity of 8 feet per second?

SOLUTION.—From formula **38***a*, we have

$$K = 2.5 \times 62.5 \times \frac{8^2}{2 \times 32.16} = 155.47 \text{ ft.-lb. per second. Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE 2.—What is the theoretical work that can be done by a jet whose area is .5 square foot, if the velocity of flow is 12 feet per second?

SOLUTION.—

$$K = w\,a\,v\frac{v^2}{2g} = 62.5 \times 5 \times 12 \times \frac{12^2}{2 \times 32.16} = 839.55 \text{ ft.-lb. per second.}$$

Ans.

EXAMPLE 3.—What is the horsepower equivalent to the energy in the jets in examples 1 and 2?

SOLUTION.—One horsepower equals 33,000 foot-pounds of work done in one minute, or $\frac{33,000}{60} = 550$ foot-pounds in one second; hence, the theoretical horsepower in the jet in example 1 is $\frac{155.47}{550} = .282$; and in example 2, $\frac{839.55}{550} = 1.526$. Ans.

Since the energy in a given weight of water passing through a jet is proportional to the square of the velocity, it is evident that when the water is to be used for doing work by the action of a jet on the vanes of a water-wheel, the velocity should be as great as possible.

The theoretical velocity that can be obtained is $v = \sqrt{2gh}$, where h is the head of the orifice from which the water flows. It was shown in Art. **994** that the actual velocity of a jet is always less than the theoretical velocity, and is found by multiplying the theoretical velocity by a coefficient that depends on the form of the orifice from which the water flows; this coefficient is always less than 1.

EXAMPLE 1.—What is the energy in the jet from a standard orifice from which 20 cubic feet of water flows per second, if the head on the orifice is 16 feet, and the coefficient of velocity .98?

SOLUTION.—The actual velocity is $v = .98\sqrt{2gh}$, and the energy

$$K = W\frac{v^2}{2g} = W \times .98^2 h = 20 \times 62.5 \times .98^2 \times 16 =$$

19,208 ft.-lb. per second. Ans.

EXAMPLE 2.—Water, under a head of 8 feet, flows from a circular standard orifice whose diameter is 6 inches. What is the energy of the jet if the coefficient of velocity is .98?

SOLUTION.—The diameter of the orifice is .5 foot, and from the table of Coefficients for Standard Vertical Orifices, the coefficient of discharge for a head of 8 feet is found to be .598 for an orifice whose diameter is .2 foot, and .596 when the diameter is .6 foot. The coefficient, therefore, decreases at a rate equal to $\frac{.598 - .596}{4} = .0005$ for each increase of .1 foot in the diameter of the orifice, and the coefficient for an orifice whose diameter is .5 foot is $.598 - (.0005 \times 3) = .5965$. The discharge is $Q = 6.299\, d^2 c\sqrt{h} = 6.299 \times .5^2 \times .5965 \times \sqrt{8} = 2.657$ cubic feet per second. The energy is

$$K = W\frac{v^2}{2g} = 2.657 \times 62.5 \times .98^2 \times 8 = 1,275.9 \text{ ft.-lb. per second. Ans.}$$

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. A weir with end contractions is 5 feet long, and the measured head is .55 foot; if the water approaches the weir with a velocity of $1\frac{1}{2}$ feet per second, what is the discharge? Ans. 7.497 cu. ft. per sec.

2. A weir without end contractions is 6 feet long, and the head is .25 foot; what is the discharge, neglecting the velocity of approach? Ans. 2.541 cu. ft. per sec.

3. A jet flows from a standard circular orifice $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter under a constant head of 75 feet; assuming the coefficient of velocity to be .98, what is the energy of the jet? Ans. 2,275.43 ft.-lb. per sec.

4. What is the theoretical horsepower in the jet in the last example? Ans. 4.137 H. P.

NOZZLES.

1013. Nozzles are used when it is desired to deliver water with a high velocity for any purpose. Their most common application is in connection with hose for fire purposes, etc. By means of nozzles a very high coefficient of velocity is obtained, and the energy of the jet is therefore great. The theoretical height to which a stream from a nozzle can be thrown is equal to the head that would produce the velocity with which the jet flows from the nozzle if the water were to fall freely through a vacuum. If v is this velocity, the theoretical height to which the stream will go is

$$h = \frac{v^2}{2g}.$$

The resistance of the air always reduces this height.

EXAMPLE.—A stream issues from the nozzle of a fire hose under a pressure of 60 pounds per square inch. If the coefficient of velocity of the nozzle is .99, what is the theoretical height to which the stream will rise?

SOLUTION.—A pressure of 60 pounds per square inch corresponds to a head of $\frac{60}{.434} = 138.25$ feet. The velocity due to this head is $v = .99\sqrt{2g \times 138.25}$, and the height corresponding to the velocity v is

$$h' = \frac{v^2}{2g} = \frac{.99^2 \times 2g \times 138.25}{2g} = .99^2 \times 138.25 = 135.5 \text{ feet. Ans.}$$

THE MINER'S INCH.

1014. The **miner's inch** is an arbitrary unit for measuring water by its flow through an orifice. The orifice and the head vary so much in different localities that no definite value can be given for the unit. Its chief use is for measuring the water sold for irrigating and mining purposes.

The following list illustrates the general meaning of the term, and also shows the great variation in its value as used in different localities:

At Smartsville, California, the miner's inch is the amount of water discharged per square inch of area by an orifice four inches deep, having its lower edge level with the bottom of the box or sluice and its top edge seven inches below the surface of the water. The length of this orifice is made to correspond with the number of miner's inches it is to discharge. Under these conditions the Smartsville inch corresponds to a discharge of about 1.76 cubic feet of water per minute, or 2,534 cubic feet per 24 hours.

The Park Canal Mining Company furnishes water under such conditions that a miner's inch corresponds to a discharge of about 1.39 cubic feet per minute. The South Yuba Canal Company computes a miner's inch from the discharge through a two-inch aperture over a one and one-half inch plank with a head on the center of the aperture of six inches.

FLOW THROUGH PIPES.

PRESSURE HEAD AND VELOCITY HEAD.

1015. In Fig. 178 is shown a short pipe with a varying cross-section leading from a reservoir to a small nozzle. If the pipe is closed at the nozzle, so that no water can flow through it, the water will rise in each of the tubes *a*, *b*, and *c*, until it reaches the same level as the surface of the water in the reservoir. When there is a flow through the pipe, the water falls in the tubes and stands lowest in the tubes connected where the cross-section of the pipe is least.

This result is due to the difference in the velocities of the water in the different sections of the pipe. The same quantity flows through each section in a given time and, since the mean velocity is equal to the quantity flowing divided by the area of the section, i. e., $v = \frac{Q}{a}$, the velocity must increase as the section is reduced. It was shown in Art. **990** that a given velocity of flow v is equivalent to the velocity that would be produced if the water fell in a vacuum a distance equal to the head h which produces the given flow.

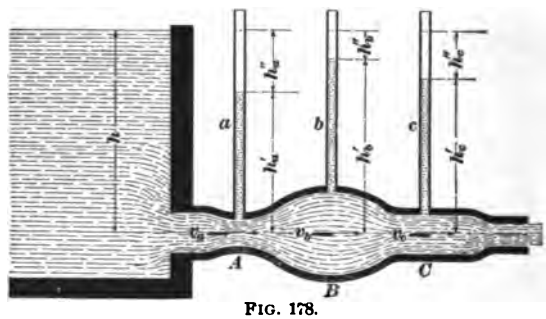


FIG. 178.

The water in flowing through the section A has a certain velocity v_a equivalent to the velocity that would be produced by a head we may call h_a'', so that $v_a^2 = 2gh_a''$. That is, part of the pressure due to the head h is exerted in producing the velocity whose equivalent head is $h_a'' = \frac{v_a^2}{2g}$, and the rest exists as pressure shown by the head h_a'. In the same way at the section B we have the **velocity head** $h_b'' = \frac{v_b^2}{2g}$ required to produce the velocity v_b and the **pressure head** h_b'; and at the section C the velocity head $h_c'' = \frac{v_c^2}{2g}$ and the pressure head h_c'.

1016. Neglecting the effects of friction, we have the following principle:

The sum of the velocity head plus the pressure head for any given section is equal to the total head h due to the water in the reservoir.

This principle can be proved as follows: The energy in the water as it leaves the reservoir is equal to Wh. Since there are to be no losses in energy from friction or otherwise, and the quantity of water passing is the same for each section, the energy must be the same at all sections. The total energy in the water at any section is the sum of the potential energy due to the pressure and the kinetic energy due to the velocity.

Hence, $$Wh = W\left(h_a' + \frac{v_a^2}{2g}\right) = W(h_a' + h_a'') =$$

$$W\left(h_b' + \frac{v_b^2}{2g}\right) = W(h_b' + h_b''), \text{ etc.,}$$

from which $$h = h_a' + h_a'' = h_b' + h_b'' = h_c' + h_c''.$$

This principle is expressed by the theorem: *The pressure head plus the velocity head equals the hydrostatic head.*

EXAMPLE.—If, in Fig. 178, the hydrostatic head h is 20 feet and the pressure head at the section A is $h_a' = 12$ feet, what is the velocity v_a in the section A?

SOLUTION.—The velocity head $h_a'' = 20 - 12 = 8$ feet; hence, the velocity $v_a = \sqrt{2gh_a''} = \sqrt{2 \times 32.16 \times 8} = 22.684$ ft. per second. Ans.

LOSSES OF HEAD.

1017. In practice it is found that the pressure shown by a gauge on a pipe through which water flows and the

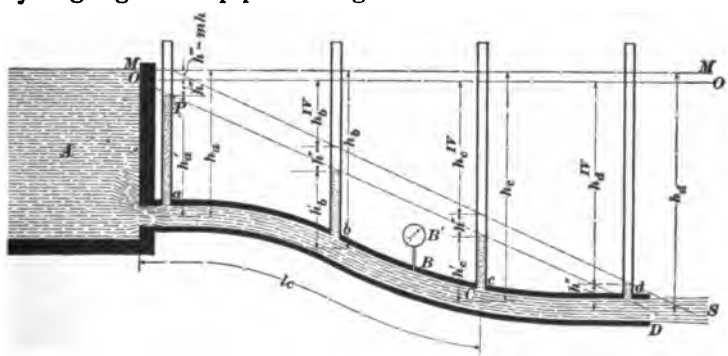


FIG. 179.

velocity of flow are always less than the theoretical pressure

and velocity; i. e., the velocity head plus the pressure head is less than the hydrostatic head.

This difference is due to friction and other resistances that absorb part of the energy of the moving water. In Fig. 179, let A be a large reservoir from which a long pipe leads to some point below the surface of the water in A, and suppose that at various points in the pipe, as at a, b, c, and d, we insert tubes that extend above the water surface in A. Now, if the pipe is closed at D, the water will flow into it and rise in each of the branches until its level reaches the level of the water in the reservoir.

1018. The **hydrostatic head** on the center of any section of the pipe is the vertical distance in feet from the center of the pipe to the level of the water in the tube attached at that point, when there is no flow; or, in other words, the vertical distance from the center of the pipe to the level of the surface of the water in the reservoir. Since the pressure can be directly determined from the head, the level of the water in the tube is also a measure of the pressure of the water at the point in the pipe at which it is attached. Instead of a tube that rises to the height of the water in the reservoir, it is evident that we can use a pressure gauge, as at B', which may be graduated to show either the pressure in pounds per square inch or the head in feet. If the gauge shows only the pressure in pounds per square inch, this pressure must always be reduced to its equivalent head in feet for use in problems and formulas pertaining to the flow of water.

The horizontal line $M\,M$, to which the water in the tubes a, b, c, d will rise when no water flows through the pipe, is called the **hydrostatic grade line.**

PIEZOMETERS.

1019. A gauge or tube inserted in a pipe to show the pressure of the water is called a **piezometer.** When a piezometer is to be placed on a pipe through which water is flowing, the tube should always be so inserted as to be at right angles to the current in the pipe, as shown at a,

Fig. 180. If the tube is so inclined that the current flows against the end as shown at *b*, the action of the current will force the water into the tube and cause it to rise higher than the head due to the pressure; and if inclined in the opposite direction, as at *c*, the action of the current will reduce the indicated pressure.

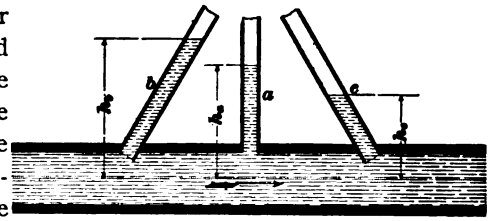


FIG. 180.

EXAMPLE.—A pressure gauge attached to a water main shows a pressure of 76 pounds per square inch. What is the equivalent head?

SOLUTION.—The head $h = \frac{76}{.434} = 175.1$ feet. Ans.

LOSS OF HEAD AT ENTRANCE.

1020. Where water flows from a reservoir into a pipe, a piezometer attached to the pipe near the reservoir shows a certain pressure whose head is h_a'. The velocity at which the water flows is equal to a head h'', and, if there were no losses, $h_a' + h''$ would equal the total hydrostatic head h_a. The water on entering the pipe meets with resistances, due to friction, contraction, etc., that absorb part of its energy, and this causes a loss of head similar to the loss when water flows through an orifice or a short tube.

This loss is proportional to the mean velocity with which the water flows through the pipe, and also depends on the form of the end of the pipe where it enters the reservoir; hence, the lost head can be expressed by the equation

$$h''' = m.h'' = m\frac{v^2}{2g}, \qquad (39.)$$

where m is a factor that depends on the form of the end of the pipe.

Fig. 181 shows average values of the coefficient m as

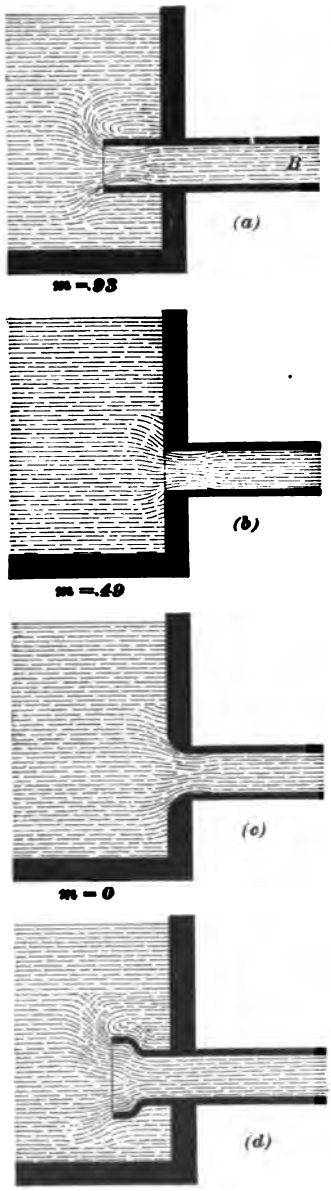


FIG. 181.

determined by experiment for different cases. In practice a water main generally projects into the reservoir and terminates in a bell-shaped end, as shown at (*d*), so that the coefficient m for long water mains may generally be taken as .5.

EXAMPLE.—A 12-inch pipe discharges 12 cubic feet of water per second. If the pipe enters the reservoir, as shown at (*d*), Fig. 181, what is the loss of head at entrance?

SOLUTION.—The mean velocity of flow is

$$v = \frac{12}{.7854} = 15.279 \text{ feet per second.}$$

The loss of head is

$$h''' = m\frac{v^2}{2g} = .5 \times \frac{15.279^2}{2 \times 32.16} =$$

1.815 feet. Ans.

LOSS OF HEAD FROM FRICTION IN THE PIPE.

1021. When water flows through a pipe, it meets with resistances, due to the friction of the particles on the sides of the pipe and on each other. These resistances absorb energy and cause a further loss in head.

Experiments have shown that the friction of water flowing through a pipe depends, approximately, on the following laws:

1. *The loss in friction is proportional to the length of the pipe.*

2. *It varies nearly as the square of the velocity.*

3. *It varies inversely as the diameter of the pipe.*
4. *It increases with the roughness of the pipe.*
5. *It is independent of the pressure in the pipe.*

In accordance with these laws, the friction head h^{IV} is expressed by the equation

$$h^{IV} = f\frac{l}{d}\frac{v^2}{2g}, \qquad (40a.)$$

in which l is the length of the pipe, d its diameter, and f a coefficient that depends on the roughness of the pipe.

It has been found that f varies with the diameter of the pipe and the velocity of flow. The table of Coefficients for Pipes gives values of f for clean cast-iron pipes well laid.

EXAMPLE.—What is the loss of head due to friction in a 10-inch pipe 1,000 feet long, if the mean velocity of flow is 8 feet per second?

SOLUTION.—From the table of Coefficients for Pipes, the coefficient f for a 10-inch pipe is found to be .0197, when the velocity of flow is 8 feet per second; therefore,

$$h^{IV} = f\frac{l}{d}\frac{v^2}{2g} = .0197 \times \frac{1,000}{.83\frac{1}{3}} \times \frac{8^2}{2 \times 32.16} = 23.522 \text{ feet. Ans.}$$

LOSSES OF HEAD DUE TO CHANGE OF SECTION AND BENDS.

1022. When water flows from a small section to a larger one, see Fig. 182 (a), energy is absorbed in producing eddies among the water particles just at the enlargement. The change from a large to a smaller section, as at (b), causes a contraction in the mouth of the smaller section. The result in both cases is a loss of head. If the change in section in the pipe is made gradually, as at Fig. 182 (c) and (d), the loss is made small and may be neglected when computing the flow. In practice a change in section is usually made by means of a **reducer,** see Fig. 182 (e).

1023. When there are sudden bends in the pipe there will be a loss, due partly to shock and eddies, and partly to the contraction in the flow, as shown in Fig. 182 (f) and (g).

Experiments made with bends like Fig. 182 (f) show that

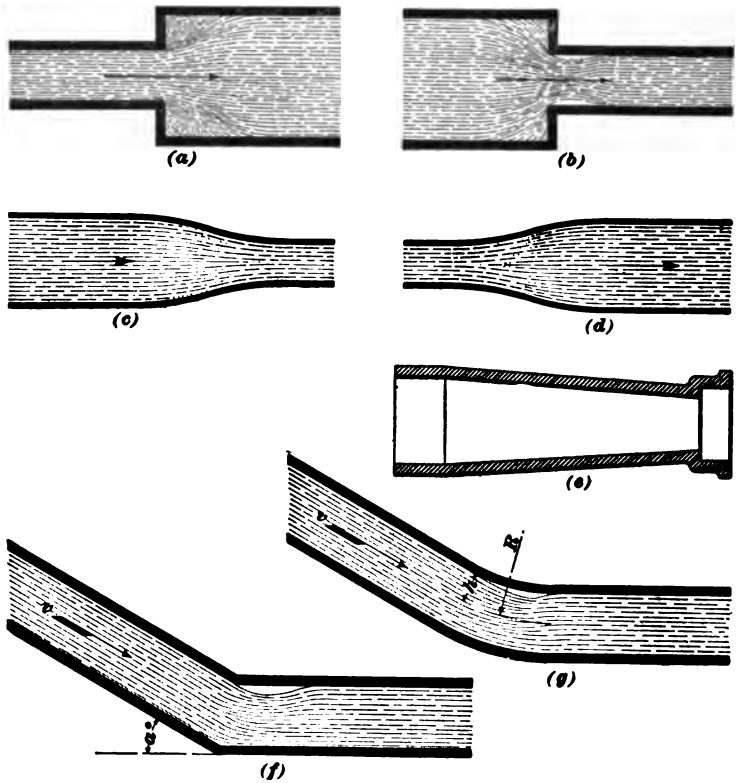


FIG. 182.

the loss of head may be expressed in terms of the mean velocity by the formula

$$h^{v} = c\frac{v^2}{2g}. \qquad (40b.)$$

Table 18a gives values of c for different values of the angle $a°$.

TABLE 18a.

$a°$ =	10°	20°	40°	60°	80°	90°	100°	110°	120°	130°	140°	150°
c =	.017	.046	.139	.364	.74	.984	1.26	1.56	1.86	2.16	2.43	2.81

For a bend like Fig. 182 (g), the loss of head is expressed by the formula

$$h^{\text{VI}} = c' \frac{v^2}{2g}, \qquad (40c.)$$

in which c' depends on the ratio between the radius r of the pipe and the radius R of the bend.

The following table gives values of c' corresponding to various values of the ratio $\frac{r}{R}$:

TABLE 18*b*.

$\frac{r}{R} =$	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	.6	.7	.8	.9	1.0
$c' =$	.131	.138	.158	.206	.294	.440	.661	.977	1.408	1.978

From the table it is seen that when R is made large in comparison to r, the value of c', and hence the loss in head, is small.

There may be other resistances, such as valves, which change the direction of flow of the water, or suddenly change the area through which the water flows. If the pipe is carefully designed and laid, however, these losses may be made so small in comparison with the other losses named above as to be neglected in the formulas for head and velocity.

TOTAL HEAD AND VELOCITY OF FLOW.

1024. The **total head** at any section of the pipe is equal to the sum of the pressure head, the velocity head, and the losses in head due to the energy absorbed in overcoming the resistances in the pipe between the reservoir and the given section.

Thus, at the point c in Fig. 179, the total head is $h_c = h_c' + h'' + h''' + h_c^{\text{IV}}$.

At the end of the pipe the pressure head becomes 0, and the total head h is given by the formula

$$h = h'' + h''' + h^{\text{IV}}. \qquad (41.)$$

If we suppose that there are n bends similar to Fig. 182 (g), there will be a further loss of head equal to $n\,h^{\text{VI}} = n\,c'h'' = n\,c'\frac{v^2}{2g}$, and we have the total head

$$h = h'' + h''' + h^{\text{IV}} + h^{\text{VI}} =$$

$$\frac{v^2}{2g} + f\frac{l}{d}\frac{v^2}{2g} + m\frac{v^2}{2g} + n\,c'\frac{v^2}{2g}. \qquad (\mathbf{41}a.)$$

By solving formula **41**a for v, we get the following formula for the velocity of flow:

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2gh}{1 + f\frac{l}{d} + m + n\,c'}} = 8.02\sqrt{\frac{h}{1 + f\frac{l}{d} + m + n\,c'}}. \qquad (\mathbf{42.})$$

Formula **42** will give the mean velocity of flow through a pipe in which the total head is h, when the length l, and the diameter d, and the values of the coefficients f, m, and c' are known.

The table of Coefficients for Pipes gives mean values of f that may be used for clean iron pipes, either smooth or coated with coal tar. Since f depends on v, which is unknown, it is first necessary to take from the table a mean value of f depending on the diameter of the pipe, and then solve for v. This gives an approximate value for v from which to find a new value of f and solve again for v. If the last value of f is nearly the same as would be given in the table for the value of v last found, the result is satisfactory. If not, the last value of v must be taken as an approximation from which a new value of f is to be found, and the process repeated.

If m has the value .5 given in Fig. 181 (d), Art. **1020,** for the common case of a pipe with a bell end, and there are no sharp bends or similar resistances, the formula for v becomes

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2gh}{1.5 + f\frac{l}{d}}} = 8.02\sqrt{\frac{h}{1.5 + f\frac{l}{d}}}. \qquad (\mathbf{43.})$$

LONG PIPES.

1025. For pipes in which the length l is greater than 4,000 d, the velocity head and loss of head at entrance become so small in comparison to the loss due to friction that they may be neglected, and the formula for velocity becomes

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2gdh}{fl}} = 8.02\sqrt{\frac{dh}{fl}}. \qquad (44.)$$

For d in inches formula **43** becomes

$$v = 2.315\sqrt{\frac{hd}{fl + .125\,d}}, \qquad (43a.)$$

and instead of formula **44** we have

$$v = 2.315\sqrt{\frac{hd}{fl}}. \qquad (44a.)$$

EXAMPLE 1.—A 12-inch pipe, 3,000 feet long, with a bell end, enters the reservoir in such a way that the coefficient m may be taken as .5. The pipe has two 45° bends, each with a radius of 2 feet. If the head on the discharge end of the pipe is 35 feet, what will be the velocity of flow?

SOLUTION.—The loss of head from the bends depends on the ratio between the radius of the pipe and the radius of the bend. This ratio is $\frac{6}{24} = .25$. From the table of Coefficients for Pipes, the coefficient c' for a radius of .2 is .138, and for the ratio .3 $c' = .158$; therefore, for .25 the coefficient is $.138 + (.158 - .138) \times .5 = .148$. Assuming .022 as an approximate value for f for use in this case, and substituting the values of the coefficients in formula **42**, there results

$$v = 8.02\sqrt{\frac{35}{1 + .022 \times \frac{3000}{1} + .5 + 2 \times .148}} = 5.762 \text{ feet per second.}$$

From the table the value of f for a velocity of 5.762 feet per second is

$$.0207 - (.0007 \times .762) = .0202.$$

Using this value of f, the velocity becomes

$$v = 8.02\sqrt{\frac{35}{1 + .0202 \times \frac{3000}{1} + .5 + 2 \times .148}} = 6.007 \text{ feet per second.}$$

Since the coefficient f for a velocity of 6 feet per second is .020, this value of v may be assumed as practically correct. Ans.

EXAMPLE 2.—A 10-inch pipe, 8,000 feet long, is so laid that there is practically no loss of head from bends or valves. If the head is 150 feet, what is the mean velocity of flow?

SOLUTION.—Since the length is more than 4,000 times the diameter, formula **44** may be used. Taking .02 as a mean value of f, the approximate velocity of flow is

$$v = 8.02\sqrt{\frac{\frac{5}{8} \times 150}{.02 \times 8{,}000}} = 7.089 \text{ feet per second.}$$

By comparison with the table it is seen that the assumed value of f corresponds very nearly with the value for a velocity of 7 feet per second; therefore, the result found is nearly correct. Ans.

EXAMPLE 3.—What would have been the value of v in the above example if formula **43** had been used?

SOLUTION.—

$$v = 8.02\sqrt{\frac{150}{1.5 + .02 \times \frac{8{,}000}{.8\frac{1}{3}}}} = 7.061 \text{ ft. per second. Ans.}$$

From the last two examples it is seen that for long pipes the effect of resistances at entrance may be neglected without affecting the practical accuracy of the result.

HEAD REQUIRED TO PRODUCE A GIVEN VELOCITY.

1026. A formula for the head required to produce a given velocity of flow v can be found from the formulas given above by solving for h. Thus, from formula **42**, the value of the head is

$$h = \frac{v^2\left(1 + f\frac{l}{d} + m + n c'\right)}{64.32}. \qquad (\mathbf{45.})$$

For a straight cylindrical pipe in which the influence of bends disappears and m is taken as .5, the formula becomes

$$h = \frac{f l v^2}{64.32\, d} + .0233\, v^2. \qquad (\mathbf{45}a.)$$

Formulas **45** and **45***a* apply when d is in feet; for d in inches, formula **45***a* becomes

$$h = \frac{f l v^2}{5.36\, d} + .0233\, v^2. \qquad (\mathbf{45}b.)$$

EXAMPLE.—An 8-inch pipe, 2,500 feet long, has three bends whose radius equals the diameter of the pipe. If the coefficient for loss at entrance is $m = .5$ and $f = .02$, what must be the head to produce a velocity of flow of 7 feet per second?

SOLUTION.—The ratio between the radius of a bend and the radius of a pipe is $\frac{4}{8} = .5$; therefore, from the table of Coefficients for Pipes, the coefficient c' is .29.

Substituting in formula **45**, we have

$$h = \frac{7^2\left(1 + .02\,\frac{2{,}500}{\frac{8}{12}} + .5 + 3 \times .29\right)}{64.32} = 58.94 \text{ feet. Ans.}$$

THE QUANTITY DISCHARGED FROM PIPES.

1027. The formulas just given are made use of in ascertaining the quantity of water that will be discharged from a pipe in a given time, with a given head. This is readily found from the formula $Q = A\,v$, where A equals the area of the cross-section of the pipe and v the mean velocity as determined by the above formulas.

Where the diameter is given in feet, the discharge in cubic feet per second is

$$Q = .7854\,d^2\,v. \qquad \textbf{(46.)}$$

Since one cubic foot contains 7.48 gallons, when d is in feet the discharge in gallons per second is

$$Q = .7854\,d^2\,v \times 7.48. \qquad \textbf{(46}a.\textbf{)}$$

And when d is in inches,

$$Q = .0408\,d^2\,v. \qquad \textbf{(46}b.\textbf{)}$$

EXAMPLE.—What is the discharge in gallons per minute from a 6-inch pipe, if the mean velocity of efflux is 5.6 feet per second?

SOLUTION.— $Q = .0408\,d^2\,v = .0408 \times 36 \times 5.6 = 8.225$ gallons per second. $8.225 \times 60 = 493.5$ gallons per minute. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—The length of a pipe is 6,270 feet, its diameter is 8 inches, and the total head at the point of discharge is 215 feet. How many gallons are discharged per minute?

SOLUTION.—First find the approximate value of v from formula **44***a*, taking the value of $f = .025$.

$$v = 2.315\sqrt{\frac{h\,d}{f\,l}} = 2.315\sqrt{\frac{215 \times 8}{.025 \times 6{,}270}} = 7.67 \text{ feet per second, nearly.}$$

From the table of Coefficients for Pipes, the value of f for an 8-inch pipe and a velocity of 7.67 feet per second is

$$.0213 - \frac{(.001 \times 1.67)}{2} = .0205.$$

With the value of f used in formula **43***a*, the velocity is

$$v = 2.315 \sqrt{\frac{215 \times 8}{.0205 \times 6{,}270}} = 8.47 \text{ feet per second.}$$

The value of f for $v = 8.47$ feet per second is $.0203 - \left(\frac{.001 \times .47}{2}\right) =$ .0201, and this value gives

$$v = 2.315 \sqrt{\frac{215 \times 8}{.0201 \times 6{,}270}} = 8.552 \text{ feet per second.}$$

The discharge is

$$Q = .0408 \times 8^2 \times 8.552 = 22.33 \text{ gallons per second.}$$
$$22.33 \times 60 = 1{,}340 \text{ gallons per minute. Ans.}$$

TO COMPUTE THE DIAMETERS OF PIPES.

1028. The diameter of a pipe that will furnish a certain quantity of water with a given head and length can be found as follows:

With h, l, and d in feet and the quantity Q in cubic feet per second, the formula for the diameter of a pipe without sharp bends is

$$d = 0.479 \left[(1.5\, d + f\, l) \frac{Q^2}{h} \right]^{\frac{1}{5}}. \qquad \textbf{(47.)}$$

In using this formula take the approximate value of f as .02, and compute an approximate value for d, neglecting the term $1.5\, d$ in the second member of the formula. With this value of d find the value of v from the formula $v = \frac{Q}{.7854\, d^2}$, and find the corresponding value of f from the table of Coefficients for Pipes.

Repeat the computation for d by placing the approximate values of d and f just found in the second member of the formula. One or two repetitions of this process will give a near approximation of d from which to select the pipe from the standard market sizes.

For pipes whose length is more than 4,000 times their diameter the following formula may be used;

$$d = 0.479\left(\frac{f\,l\,Q^2}{h}\right)^{\frac{1}{5}}. \qquad (47a.)$$

EXAMPLE 1.—What must be the diameter of a pipe to discharge 1,000,000 gallons of water per 24 hours, if the length is 1,250 feet, and the head 75 feet?

SOLUTION.—The discharge in cubic feet per second is $\frac{1,000,000}{86,400 \times 7.48} =$ 1.5473. The approximate diameter of the pipe is

$$d = 0.479\left(\frac{.02 \times 1,250 \times 1.5473^2}{75}\right)^{\frac{1}{5}} = .4579 \text{ foot.}$$

The velocity corresponding to this value of d is

$$v = \frac{1.5473}{.7854 \times .4579^2} = 9.395 \text{ feet per second.}$$

From the table of Coefficients for Pipes the coefficient f for a pipe 6 inches (= .5 foot) in diameter, and a velocity of flow of 10 feet per second, is .02.

Since these values of d and v correspond closely with the approximate values just found, the value $f = .02$ may be used again. Using the approximate value of d in formula **47**, there results

$$d = 0.479\left[(1.5 \times .4579 + .02 \times 1,250)\frac{1.5473^2}{75}\right]^{\frac{1}{5}} = .4603 \text{ foot.}$$

The nearest market size to this diameter is a 6-inch pipe; hence, that may be taken. Ans.

EXAMPLE 2.—A water main 17,320 feet long must supply a city with 10,000,000 gallons of water per 24 hours under a steady flow. If the head is 120 feet, what must be the diameter of the pipe?

SOLUTION.—The flow in cubic feet per second is

$$Q = \frac{10,000,000}{86,400 \times 7.48} = 15.473$$

The approximate value of d is, therefore,

$$d = 0.479\left(\frac{.02 \times 17.320 \times 15.473^2}{120}\right)^{\frac{1}{5}} = 1.771 \text{ feet.}$$

The velocity of flow corresponding to this diameter is

$$v = \frac{15.473}{.7854 \times 1.771^2} = 6.28 \text{ feet per second.}$$

From the table of Coefficients for Pipes, the coefficient f for a pipe 20 inches in diameter, and a velocity of flow of 6 feet per second, is .0173.

Since the length of the pipe is more than 4,000 times the approximate diameter, formula **47***a* may be used; hence,

$$d = 0.479\left(\frac{.0173 \times 14{,}320 \times 15.473^2}{120}\right)^{\frac{1}{5}} = 1.721 \text{ feet} = 21 \text{ inches, nearly.}$$

Therefore, the nearest available market size above this may be used. Ans.

THE EFFECTIVE HEAD.

1029. The head that produces the flow in a pipe is always the difference between the total head and the pressure head on the end where discharge takes place. If the pipe discharges directly into the atmosphere, as in Fig. 179, the pressure head becomes zero, and flow is produced by the total head h_d.

In most cases, however, the discharge is into a reservoir,

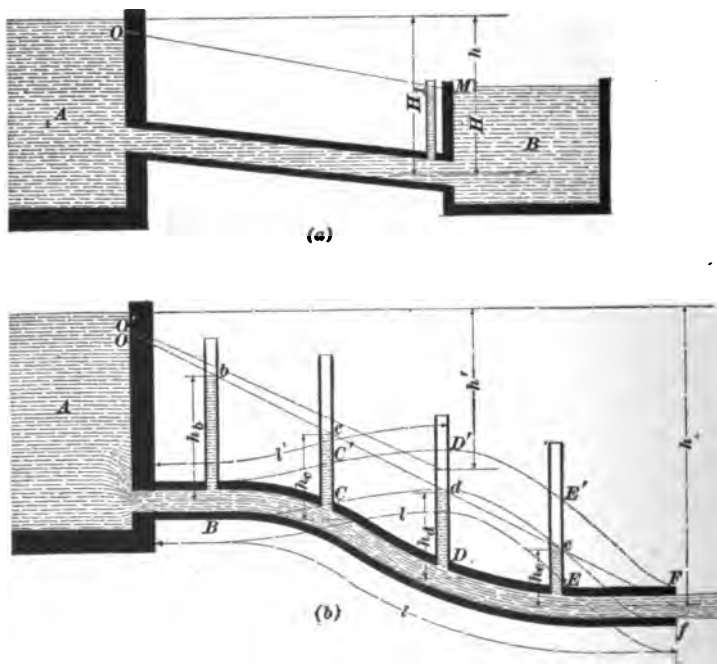


FIG. 183.

as in Fig. 183 (*a*), or the pipe is required to furnish water to

a water-wheel or to a system of distributing pipes at a certain pressure per square inch.

In Fig. 183 (a) the effective head h is the difference between the total head H_1 and the head H of the water in the reservoir B.

EXAMPLE.—A pipe must supply water at a pressure of 25 pounds per square inch, under a total head of 75 feet. What is the effective head?

SOLUTION.—The head required to produce a pressure of 25 pounds per square inch is $25 \div .434 = 57.6$ feet; then, the effective head is

$$h = 75 - 57.6 = 17.4 \text{ feet. Ans.}$$

THE HYDRAULIC GRADIENT.

1030. If, in Fig. 183 (b), we draw a line through the points b, c, d, etc., at which the water would stand in piezometer tubes attached to a pipe through which water flows, this line is called the **hydraulic grade line,** also the **hydraulic gradient.** If the section of the pipe is uniform and without sharp bends or other obstructions, the line so drawn will be a straight line extending from the reservoir to the center of the end of the pipe where the water discharges into the atmosphere; and the above formulas for velocity, quantity of flow, etc., apply so long as no part of the pipe rises above this line. If, however, the pipe is so laid that it rises above the hydraulic gradient at any part, as shown by the dotted line, there is an important change in the result. If the pipe is flowing full, a piezometer attached at any point which rises above the hydraulic gradient will show a pressure less than that of the atmosphere. This causes air to collect at the point D' that rises highest above the hydraulic gradient, and the flow becomes broken, until finally the pipe will be filled only to D'. Flow now takes place in the same manner that it would if the pipe were opened to the air at D', and from that point to F the pipe is only partly filled and acts as a channel to carry the water discharged at D'.

This results in a change in the hydraulic gradient to $O'D'$, and the flow is to be computed for a pipe with the head h' and length l', instead of the head h and length l. If,

however, means are provided for preventing the collection of air at D' and the pipe is kept filled from D' to F, the velocity and discharge will be the same as for a pipe all of which is laid below the hydraulic gradient.

When a pipe discharges under pressure, as shown in Fig. 183 (*a*), the hydraulic gradient is the line $O\,M$ from the reservoir A to the surface of the water in the reservoir B, or to a point that represents the head due to the pressure where discharge takes place.

1031. When part of a pipe rises above the hydraulic gradient it is called a **siphon.**

The principles on which the action of a siphon depends are explained in the section on Pneumatics; see Art. **1074.** If the siphon is kept filled, the flow through it will take place in accordance with the laws given in Arts. **1015** to **1029** for pipes laid below the hydraulic gradient, and the same formulas apply.

The total head producing the flow in a siphon is the vertical distance h from the discharge end F of the pipe to the level of the water in the reservoir, see Fig. 183 (*b*). If the siphon is of uniform section, without sharp bends or obstructions, the hydraulic gradient will be a straight line $O\,F$ from the reservoir to the discharge end F, and the pressure in all parts of the pipe that rise above the line will be less than the atmospheric pressure. Air always tends to collect in the highest point of a siphon, and means must be provided for its removal, in order to keep up the flow.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. What will be the velocity of discharge from a 12-inch pipe, 800 feet long, under a head of 28 feet, if the pipe has a bend whose radius is 2 feet? Ans. 10.57 ft. per sec.

2. How much would the velocity of discharge be in example 1 if the pipe had no sharp bend? Ans. 10.69 ft. per sec.

3. What is the increase in the discharge, in gallons per minute, without the bend, in example 1? Ans. 42.29 gal.

NOTE.—From the preceding examples it is seen that the influence of easy bends on the discharge is slight, even in comparatively short pipes. For pipes of considerable length, the influence of a few such bends is hardly perceptible.

4. What will be the velocity of discharge from a 16-inch pipe, 10,640 feet long, with a head of 175 feet? Ans. 9.06 ft. per sec.

5. What will be the discharge in gallons per minute in example 4? Ans. 5,677.4 gal.

6. What head will be required to give a velocity of flow of 8 feet per second in an 8-inch pipe 1,350 feet long? Ans. 42.37 ft.

7. What must be the diameter of a pipe that must furnish a maximum discharge of 1,400 gallons per minute, if the length of the pipe is 6,240 feet and the head 125 feet?

Ans. { The diameter must be about .75 foot.
The standard market size next greater is 10 inches.

FLOW OF WATER IN CONDUITS AND CHANNELS.

1032. Water is often conveyed from the source of supply to the point where it is to be used in **conduits** formed of masonry or timber work, or in open channels, called **ditches** or **canals.**

The flow in these cases is caused entirely by the **slope,** or fall, of the conduit or channel, which must be so graded that the fall will be continuous and nearly uniform.

The **slope** is the ratio of the fall to the length in which it occurs. Thus if S is the slope, h the fall, and l the length in which the fall occurs, the slope is given by the formula

$$S = \frac{h}{l}. \qquad (48.)$$

EXAMPLE.—If a canal has a fall of $2\frac{1}{8}$ inches in 500 feet, what is the slope?

SOLUTION.—The head is $2\frac{1}{8}$ inches $= .17708$ foot; therefore, the slope is

$$S = \frac{.17708}{500} = .00035416.$$

The **wetted perimeter** of the cross-section of any channel or conduit is the part of its boundary in contact with the water. Thus, if a circular conduit whose diameter is 4 feet is half filled with water, its wetted perimeter is equal to one-half its circumference, or $\frac{1}{2} \times 3.1416 \times 4 = 6.2832$ feet.

The **hydraulic radius** is the ratio of the area of the cross-section of the water in a channel to the wetted perimeter. If the wetted perimeter is denoted by p, the area

of the water cross-section by a, and the hydraulic radius by r, then

$$r = \frac{a}{p}. \qquad (49.)$$

r is sometimes called the **hydraulic mean depth.**

EXAMPLE.—What is the hydraulic radius of the circular conduit in the last example?

SOLUTION.—The area $= \frac{1}{4} \times .7854 \times 4^2 = 6.2832$, and the wetted perimeter is $p = \frac{1}{2} \times 3.1416 \times 4 = 6.2832$; therefore, $r = \frac{a}{p} = \frac{6.2832}{6.2832} = 1$.

The **mean velocity** is the average velocity of flow for the whole cross-section of the water in a channel. Owing to the friction along the sides, the water filaments nearest the walls of a channel move slowest; hence, the velocity is different in different parts of the cross-section.

The **discharge** is the product of the area of the water cross-section of any part of a channel multiplied by the mean velocity of the same cross-section. If Q is the discharge and v the mean velocity, we have, as in the case of orifices and pipes,

$$Q = a\,v.$$

FORMULA FOR MEAN VELOCITY.

1033. The mean velocity of flow in a conduit or channel of any kind is given by the formula

$$v = c\sqrt{r\,s}. \qquad (50.)$$

Here c is a coefficient that depends on the value of r and s and on the degree of roughness of the surface of the channel.

Kutter's formula is a formula that gives the value of c when the nature of the interior of the conduit is known. The most simple form of Kutter's formula is the following:

$$c = \frac{23 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{.00155}{S}}{.5521 + \left(23 + \frac{.00155}{S}\right)\frac{n}{\sqrt{r}}}. \qquad (51.)$$

In the above formula n is a coefficient, called the **coeffi-**

cient of roughness. Its value depends on the condition of the interior surface of the channel, and great care and judgment are required in selecting the value to be used when applying the formula.

The following table gives the values that may be used under the conditions most often met with in practice :

VALUES OF THE COEFFICIENT OF ROUGHNESS.

Character of Channel.	Value of n.
For clean, well-planed timber	.009
For clean, smooth, glazed iron and stoneware pipes	.010
For masonry smoothly plastered with cement, and for very clean, smooth, cast-iron pipe	.011
For unplaned timber, ordinary cast-iron pipe, and selected pipe sewers, well laid and thoroughly flushed	.012
For rough iron pipes and ordinary sewer pipes laid under the usual conditions	.013
For dressed masonry and well-laid brickwork	.015
For good rubble masonry and ordinary rough or fouled brickwork	.017
For coarse rubble masonry and firm, compact gravel	.020
For well-made earth canals in good alinement	.0225
For rivers and canals in moderately good order and perfectly free from stones and weeds	.025
For rivers and canals in rather bad condition and somewhat obstructed by stones and weeds	.030
For rivers and canals in bad condition, overgrown with vegetation and strewn with stones and other detritus, according to condition	.035 to .050

EXAMPLE 1.—What is the value of c for a rough plank sluice 24 inches wide, when the depth of water in the sluice is 15 inches, and the fall 3 inches in 100 feet ?

SOLUTION.—The slope is $s = \frac{.25}{100} = .0025$; the wetted perimeter $p = 2 + (2 \times 1.25) = 4.5$ feet, and the area of the water cross-section $a = 2 \times 1.25 = 2.5$ square feet. The hydraulic radius is, therefore, $r = \frac{2.5}{4.5} = .5556$. From the table, the value of n for unplaned timber is found to be .012; therefore,

$$c = \frac{23 + \frac{1}{.012} + \frac{.00155}{.0025}}{.5521 + \left(23 + \frac{.00155}{.0025}\right) \times \frac{.012}{\sqrt{.5556}}} = 114.7. \quad \text{Ans.}$$

EXAMPLE 2.—Compute (*a*) the velocity of flow, and (*b*) the quantity of discharge for the sluice of example 1.

SOLUTION.—(*a*) The velocity is

$$v = c\sqrt{rs} = 114.7\sqrt{.5556 \times .0025} = 4.275 \text{ ft. per second.} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

(*b*) The discharge is

$$Q = av = 2.5 \times 4.275 = 10.69 \text{ cu. ft. per second.} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

FLOW IN BROOKS AND RIVERS.

1034. Weirs and orifices furnish the best and most accurate means of measuring the discharge of pipes, conduits, brooks, rivers, or channels of any kind whose volume is too great to be measured in a tank. When these methods are too expensive or the discharge too great, as in the case of large rivers, Kutter's formula may be used as described in the last article. For brooks and rivers, however, the channel is seldom regular enough to make an accurate determination of the values of n, r, and s possible; hence, the results obtained by this method are very uncertain.

The best method of finding the discharge of streams where weirs can not be used is to make a careful measurement of the cross-section and then find the mean velocity at that cross-section by one of the methods described below.

Experiments have shown that if a cross-section of a stream, as shown at (*a*), Fig. 184, is taken, the maximum velocity is at some distance below the surface where the stream is deepest. The velocity of any film surrounding the point of maximum velocity is less the greater its distance from that point, and the least velocity is in the film bordering on the bed of the stream.

At (*b*) is shown a plan of the stream, with a curve *a b c* showing the relative velocities at different points on the surface; and at (*c*) a longitudinal section in the deepest part, with a curve *d e f* showing the relative velocities from the surface to the bottom.

In order to measure the average velocity, select a part of the stream where the flow is regular and not too rapid, and where the channel is as smooth and regular as possible, for a distance of 100 feet or more. Divide the cross-section into

a convenient number of parts, as shown in Fig. 184 (*d*), and find the average depth of each of these parts by sounding.

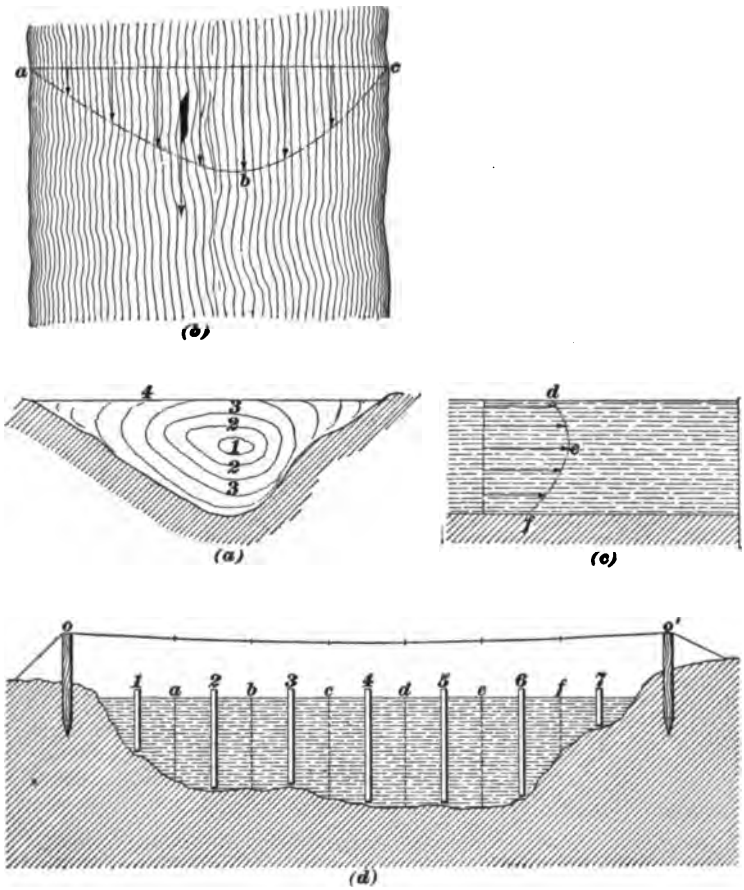


FIG. 184.

If possible, it is well to mark the cross-section by a wire *o o'* stretched across the stream, with bits of cloth or string tied to it to mark the points of division.

The area of each of the parts of the cross-section is its breadth multiplied by its average depth, and the quantity of water passing a division is the product of its area and its mean velocity of flow.

THE CURRENT-METER.

1035. The best method of measuring the velocity is by means of a **current-meter,** an instrument provided with vanes like a windmill that turn when the instrument is held in a current of water. Fig. 185 shows the original current-meter of this class, known as **Woltmann's tachometer.**

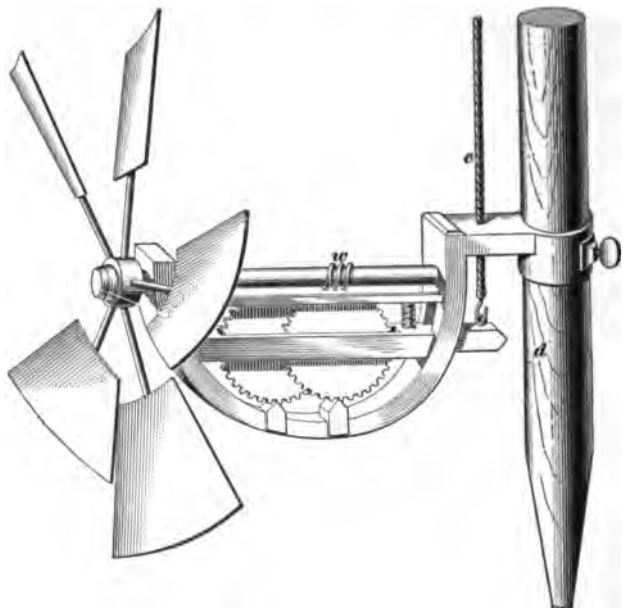


FIG. 185.

The instrument is fastened to a rod *d*, by which it can be held in the stream where the velocity of the current is to be measured. The vanes are attached to a spindle which is provided with a worm *w*. A frame carries a train of wheels that can be made to gear with the worm by pulling the cord *e*.

To use the instrument, it must be held steadily in the water with the wheel facing the current. When it is in the proper position, throw the recording device into gear by pulling the cord *e*, and hold it there for a certain time, then release it, taking great care to note the exact time during which the cord is held. The instrument can then be taken

out of the water and a record made of the time and the number of revolutions shown by the recording device.

Fig. 186 shows one of the latest forms of current-meter, in which the number of revolutions is shown by an electric

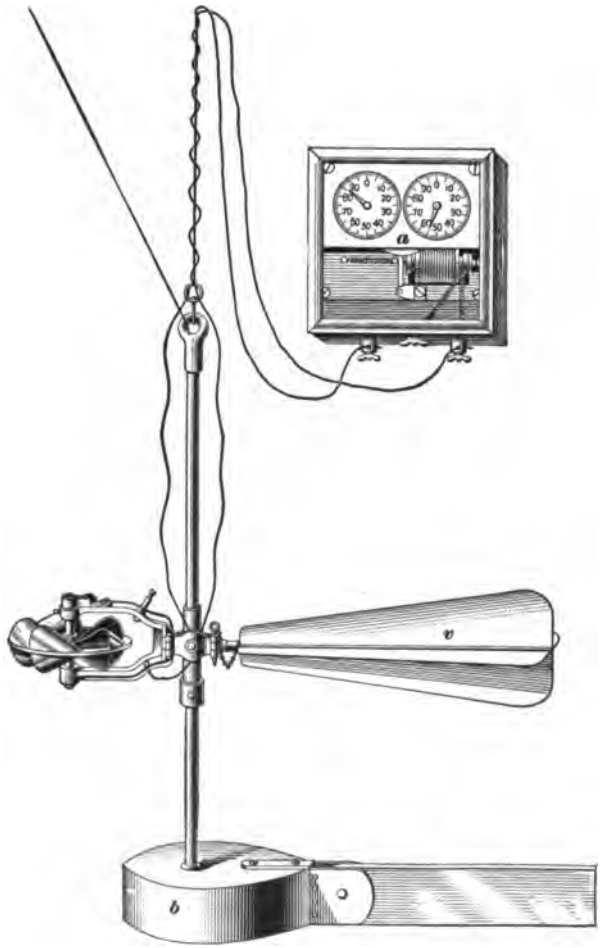


FIG. 186.

register *a*, which is connected to the instrument by an insulated wire. The register may be placed on the shore or

in a boat. A vane v holds the wheel to the current, and for deep, swift currents, a heavy weight b is used to sink and hold the meter in place. For shallow streams the instrument is best used on a rod similar to that shown for Woltman's tachometer.

RATING THE CURRENT-METER.

1036. Before using a current-meter, it must be **rated** by passing it through still water at different known velocities and noting the number of revolutions for each velocity.

USE OF THE CURRENT-METER.

1037. To find the mean velocity for a given division of any cross-section of a stream (for example, the division marked 2 in (d), Fig. 184), hold the meter for a given length of time at different successive depths in the middle of the division and note the velocity for each position; then take the average of these velocities as the mean velocity of the given section. Thus, suppose the mean depth of division 2 in Fig. 184 (d) is 8 feet, and the meter shows a velocity of 1.8 feet per second at the bottom, 2.1 feet per second at 2 feet, 2.5 feet per second at 4 feet, and 2.3 feet per second at 6 feet from the bottom, and 2.2 feet per second just below the surface; then the average of the five readings is 2.18 feet per second, which may be taken as the mean velocity for this division. If this division is 6.25 feet wide, the quantity of water flowing through it is $8 \times 6.25 \times 2.18 =$ 109 cubic feet per second. The quantity flowing in each division can be found in the same way and the sum of the values found for all the divisions will be the total discharge of the stream.

A good method for finding the mean velocity for any division is to start with the meter at the bottom of the stream in the middle of the division and move it slowly and uniformly to the surface, noting the time and number of revolutions in the period during which the meter is being raised.

MEASURING THE VELOCITY BY MEANS OF FLOATS.

1038. If a current-meter can not be had, the velocity of a stream may be measured by means of **floats.** For this purpose the best is the **rod float**, which consists of a rod of wood or a closed tin tube, with one end so weighted that it will float in the water in a nearly vertical position, and with the lower end as near the bottom as possible, without touching at any point. See 1, 2, 3, etc., Fig. 184 (*d*). It is best to use a number of tin tubes about two inches in diameter and of such lengths that each will float in the division whose velocity is to be measured with only enough above the surface to be plainly seen. Fill the lower ends of the tubes with sand or shot until they float at the required depth. Mark two stations on the stream at least 100 feet apart in such a manner that the exact moment at which a tube passes each station can be noted. A good way is to mark the stations by a wire, as shown in Fig. 184 (*d*). Another and more accurate method is to have a transit at each station and note the time when each tube passes the cross-hair. Good results may be obtained by range stakes placed on the opposite banks.

Start the tubes far enough up the stream from the first station, so that they will have the velocity of the water when they pass that station, and carefully note the time it takes each tube to pass over the distance between the two stations. The distance between the stations in feet, divided by the time in seconds, gives the velocity in feet per second for the division in which the tube floated. From this velocity and the area of the division, the quantity of flow can be computed in the same manner as described for the current-meter.

Surface floats are sometimes used for obtaining the velocity of flow. Find the average velocity in feet per second with which the float passes between two stations, in the same way as has been described for rod floats. Then, if v' is the observed velocity for any division of the stream, the mean velocity of that division may be taken as

$$v = .9\,v'. \qquad \textbf{(52.)}$$

EXAMPLE.—If two stations on a stream are 200 feet apart, and a surface float in a given section passes over the distance between the two stations in 7 minutes and 25 seconds, what is the mean velocity of flow in that section?

SOLUTION.—The velocity of the float is

$$v' = \frac{200}{445} = .449 \text{ foot per second;}$$

therefore, according to the formula, the mean velocity is

$$v = .9\,v' = .9 \times .449 = .404 \text{ ft. per second. Ans.}$$

For a rough approximation a single surface float passing along the axis of the stream may be used. For this case the mean velocity of the whole stream may be taken as .8 of the velocity of the float. Surface floats should be of such a form as to rise but little above the surface of the water, so as to be but little affected by currents of air, and they should be used only when there is a calm, since the wind has a great influence on the surface velocity of a stream.

Submerged Floats.—A float that gives better results than the surface float is shown in Fig. 187. A body heavy enough to sink, and at the same time present as large a surface to the water in proportion to its weight as possible, is attached to a float on the surface by a fine cord or wire, whose length is just sufficient to allow the submerged body to float half way between the surface and the bottom. The surface float B should be made to offer as little resistance as possible to its passage through the water, the object being to get the velocity at mid-depth, as nearly as possible. In the figure the submerged float A is made of two strips of tin or sheet metal fastened together in the form of a cross, as shown in plan at C. A small weight D is attached to the bottom, as shown, to assist in keeping the float in a vertical position.

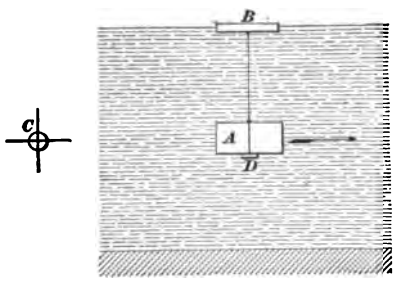


FIG. 187.

This float is used in the same manner as has been

described for rod floats. The mean velocity for any division may be taken as .98 of the velocity of the float.

The principles involved in the above methods of measuring the velocities of streams are simple, but in order to get good results great care must be taken in making the various measurements and observations. In most cases it is best to repeat the observations several times and take the mean of the results obtained as the probable real value.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. A circular brick sewer 3 feet in diameter falls 3.75 feet in a length of 2,500 feet. What is the slope? Ans. .0015.

2. The sewer in example 1 flows half full. (*a*) What is its wetted perimeter? (*b*) What is its hydraulic radius? (*c*) What is the value of *c* from Kutter's formula, using the value of *n* for fouled sewers? (*d*) What is the mean velocity of flow? (*e*) What is the discharge in cubic feet per second?

Ans. (*a*) 4.7124 ft.
(*b*) .75.
(*c*) 80.9.
(*d*) 2.71 ft. per sec.
(*e*) 9.58 cu. ft. per sec.

3. The following table gives the results of a survey for the purpose of finding the flow of a river:

Divisions of the Cross-Section.	Width of Divisions.	Mean Depth of Divisions.	Mean Velocity in each Division as Determined by Current-Meter.
No. 1	6 feet	2.12 feet	0.315 feet per second
No. 2	10 feet	5.17 feet	1.227 feet per second
No. 3	10 feet	8.27 feet	2.080 feet per second
No. 4	10 feet	7.46 feet	2.049 feet per second
No. 5	10 feet	4.72 feet	1.156 feet per second
No. 6	5.25 feet	3.35 feet	0.720 feet per second

What is the discharge (*a*) in each division, and (*b*) in the whole stream?

Ans. (*a*) Division 1, 4.0068 cu. ft. per sec.
Division 2, 63.4359 cu. ft. per sec.
Division 3, 172.0160 cu. ft. per sec.
Division 4, 152.8554 cu. ft. per sec.
Division 5, 54.5632 cu. ft. per sec.
Division 6, 12.6630 cu. ft. per sec.
(*b*) 459.5403 cu. ft. per sec.

PNEUMATICS.

PROPERTIES OF AIR AND GASES.

1039. Pneumatics is that branch of Mechanics which treats of the properties of gases.

1040. The most striking feature concerning gases is that, *no matter how small the quantity may be, they will always fill the vessels which contain them.* If a bladder or football is partly filled with air and placed under a glass jar (called a **receiver**), from which the air has been exhausted, the bladder or football will immediately expand, as shown in Fig. 188. The force which a gas always exerts when confined in a limited space, is called **tension.** The word tension in this case means pressure, and is only used in this sense in reference to gases.

FIG. 188.

1041. As *water* is the most common type of fluids, so *air* is the most common type of gases. It was supposed by the ancients that air was imponderable, i. e., that it weighed nothing, and it was not until about the year 1650 that it was proven that air really had weight. A cubic inch of air, under ordinary conditions, weighs .31 grain, nearly. The ratio of the weight of air to water is about 1 : 774; that is, air is only $\frac{1}{774}$ as heavy as water. In Art. **989** it was shown that if a body was immersed in water, and weighed less than the volume of water displaced, the body would rise and extend partly out of the water. The same

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is true to a certain extent of air. If a vessel made of light material is filled with a gas lighter than air, so that the total weight of the vessel and gas is less than the weight of the volume of air which they displace, the vessel will rise. It is on this principle that balloons are made.

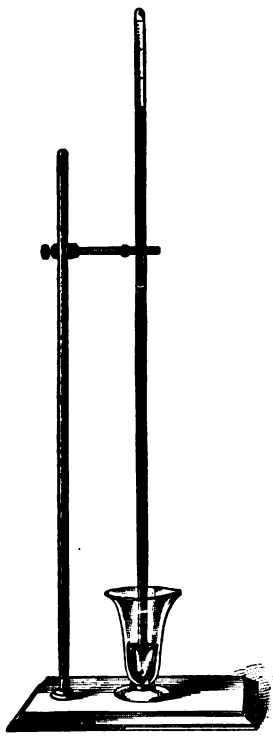

FIG. 189.

1042. Since air has weight, it is evident that the enormous quantity of air that constitutes the atmosphere must exert a considerable pressure upon the earth. This is easily proven by taking a long glass tube, closed at one end, and filling it with mercury. If the finger is placed over the open end, so as to keep the mercury from running out, and the tube is inverted and placed in a cup of mercury, as shown in Fig. 189, the mercury will fall, then rise, and after a few oscillations will come to rest at a height above the top of the mercury in the glass equal to about 30 inches. This height will always be the same under the same atmospheric conditions (allowance being made for the effects of capillary attraction). Now, if the atmosphere has weight, it must press upon the upper surface of the mercury in the glass with equal intensity upon every square unit, except upon that part of the surface occupied by the tube. According to Pascal's law (see Art. **970**), this pressure is transmitted in all directions. There being nothing in the tube, except the mercury, to counterbalance the upward pressure of the air, the mercury falls in the tube until it exerts a downward pressure on the upper surface of the mercury in the cup sufficiently great to counterbalance the upward pressure produced by the atmosphere. In order that there shall

be equilibrium, the pressure of the air per unit of area on the upper surface of the mercury in the glass must equal the pressure (weight) exerted per unit of area by the mercury inside of the tube. Suppose that the area of the inside of the tube is one square inch ; then, since mercury is 13.6 times as heavy as water, the weight of the mercurial column is .03617 $\times$ 13.6 $\times$ 30 = 14.7574 pounds. The actual height of the mercury is a little less than 30 inches, and the actual weight of a cubic inch of distilled water is a little less than .03617 pound. When these considerations are taken into account, the average weight of the mercurial column at the level of the sea is 14.69 pounds, or, as it is usually expressed, 14.7 pounds. Since this weight, exerted upon 1 square inch of the liquid in the glass, just produced equilibrium, it is plain that the pressure of the outside air is 14.7 pounds upon every square inch of surface.

1043. Vacuum.—The space between the upper end of the tube and the upper surface of the mercury is called a **vacuum,** meaning that it is an entirely empty space, and does not contain any substance, solid, liquid, or gaseous. If there was a gas of some kind there, no matter how small the quantity might be, it would expand, filling the space, and its tension would cause the column of mercury to fall and become shorter, according to the amount of gas or air present. The space is then called a **partial vacuum.** If the mercury fell 1 inch, so that the column was only 29 inches high, we should say, in ordinary language, that there were *29 inches of vacuum.* If it fell 8 inches, we would say that there were 22 inches of vacuum ; if it fell 16 inches, we would say that there were 14 inches of vacuum, etc. Hence, when the vacuum gauge of a condensing engine shows 26 inches of vacuum, there is enough air in the condenser to produce a pressure of $\frac{30-26}{30} \times 14.7 = \frac{4}{30} \times 14.7 = 1.96$ pounds per square inch. In all cases where the mercurial column is used to measure a vacuum, the height of the column in inches gives the number of inches of vacuum. Thus, if the

column were 5 inches high, or the vacuum gauge showed 5 inches, the vacuum would be 5 inches.

If the tube had been filled with water instead of mercury, the height of the column of water to balance the pressure of the atmosphere would have been $30 \times 13.6 = 408$ inches = 34 feet. This means that if a tube were filled with water, inverted and placed in a dish of water in a manner similar to the experiment made with the mercury, that the resulting height of the column of water would be 34 feet.

FIG. 190.

1044. The **barometer** is an instrument used for measuring the pressure of the atmosphere. There are two kinds in general use—the mercurial barometer and the aneroid barometer. The **mercurial barometer** is shown in Fig. 190. The principle is the same as in the case of the inverted tube shown in Fig. 189. The tube and cup at the bottom are protected by a brass or iron casing. At the top of the tube is a graduated scale which can be read to $\frac{1}{1000}$ of an inch, by means of a vernier. Attached to the casing is an accurate thermometer for determining the temperature of the outside air at the time the barometric observation is taken. This is necessary, since mercury expands when the temperature is increased, and contracts when the temperature falls; for this reason a standard temperature is assumed, and all barometer readings are reduced to this temperature. This standard temperature is usually taken at 32° F., at which temperature the height of the mercurial column is 30 inches. Another correction is made for the altitude of the place above sea level, and a third correction for the effects of capillary attraction.

1045. In Fig. 191 is shown a cut of an **aneroid barometer.** These instruments are made in various sizes, from the size of a large

watch up to an 8 or 10 inch face. They consist of a cylindrical box of metal, with a top of thin, elastic, corrugated metal. The air is removed from the box. When the atmospheric pressure increases, the top is pressed inwards, and when it is diminished, the top is pressed outwards by its own elasticity, aided by a spring beneath. These movements of the cover are transmitted and multiplied by a combination of delicate levers which act upon an index hand and

FIG. 191.

cause it to move either to the right or left over a graduated scale. These barometers are self-correcting (compensated) for variations in temperature. They are very portable, occupying but a small space, and are so delicate that they are said to show a difference in the atmospheric pressure when transferred from the table to the floor. They must be handled with care, as they are easily injured. The mercurial barometer is the standard.

1046. With air, as with water, the lower we get, the greater the pressure, and the higher we get, the less the pressure. At the level of the sea, the height of the mercurial column is about 30 inches; at 5,000 feet above the sea, it is 24.7 inches; at 10,000 feet above the sea, it is 20.5 inches; at 15,000 feet above the sea, it is 16.9 inches; at 3 miles, it is 16.4 inches, and at 6 miles above the sea level, it is 8.9 inches.

The density also varies with the altitude; that is, a cubic foot of air at an elevation of 5,000 feet above the sea level will not weigh as much as a cubic foot at sea level. This is proved conclusively by the fact that at a height of 3½ miles the mercurial column measures but 15 inches, indicating that half the weight of the entire atmosphere is below that. It is known that the height of the earth's atmosphere is at least 50 miles; hence, the air just before reaching the limit must be in an exceedingly rarefied state. It is by means of barometers that great heights are measured. The aneroid barometer has the heights marked on the dial, so that it can be read directly. With the mercurial barometer, the heights must be calculated from the reading.

1047. The atmospheric pressure is everywhere present, and presses all objects in all directions with equal force. If a book is laid upon the table, the air presses upon it in every direction with an equal average force of 14.7 pounds per square inch. It would seem as though it would take considerable force to raise a book from the table, since, if the size of the book were 8 inches by 5 inches, the pressure upon it is $8 \times 5 \times 14.7 = 588$ pounds; but there is an equal pressure beneath the book to counteract the pressure on the top. It would now seem as though it would require a great force to open the book, since there are two pressures of 588 pounds each, acting in opposite directions, and tending to crush the book; so it would but for the fact that there is a layer of air between each leaf acting upwards and downwards with a pressure of 14.7 pounds per square inch. If two metal plates be made as perfectly smooth and flat as it is possible to get

them, and the edge of one be laid upon the edge of the other, so that one may be slid upon the other, and the air thus excluded, it will take an immense force, compared with the weight of the plates, to separate them. This is because the full pressure of 14.7 pounds per square inch is then exerted upon each plate with no counteracting equal pressure between them.

If a piece of flat glass be laid upon a flat surface that has been previously moistened with water, it will require considerable force to separate them; this is because the water helps to fill up the pores in the flat surface and glass, and thus creates a partial vacuum between the glass and the surface, thereby reducing the counter pressure beneath the glass.

1048. Tension of Gases.—In Fig. 189 the space above the column of mercury was said to be a vacuum, and that if any gas or air was present, it would expand, its tension forcing the column of mercury downwards. If enough gas is admitted to cause the mercury to stand at 15 inches, the tension of the gas is evidently $\frac{14.7}{2} = 7.35$ pounds per square inch, since the pressure of the outside air of 14.7 pounds per square inch only balances 15 inches, instead of 30 inches, of mercury; that is, it balances only half as much as it would if there were no gas in the tube; therefore, the pressure (tension) of the gas in the tube is 7.35 pounds. If more gas is admitted until the top of the mercurial column is just level with the mercury in the cup, the gas in the tube has then a tension equal to the outside pressure of the atmosphere. Suppose that the bottom of the tube is fitted with a piston, and that the total length of the inside of the tube is 36 inches. If the piston be shoved upwards so that the space occupied by the gas is 18 inches long, instead of 36 inches, the temperature remaining the same as before, it will be found that the tension of the gas within the tube is 29.4 pounds per square inch. It will be noticed that the volume occupied by the gas is only half that in the tube

before the piston was moved, while the pressure is twice as great, since $14.7 \times 2 = 29.4$ pounds. If the piston be shoved up, so that the space occupied by the gas is only 9 inches, instead of 18 inches, the temperature still remaining the same, the pressure will be found to be 58.8 pounds per square inch. The volume has again been reduced one-half, and the pressure increased 2 times, since $29.4 \times 2 = 58.8$ pounds. The space now occupied by the gas is 9 inches long, whereas, before the piston was moved it was 36 inches long ; as the tube was assumed to be of uniform diameter throughout its length, the volume is now $\frac{9}{36} = \frac{1}{4}$ of its original volume, and its pressure is $\frac{58.8}{14.7} = 4$ times its original pressure. Moreover, if the temperature of the confined gas remains the same, the pressure and volume will always vary in a similar way. The law which states these effects is called *Mariotte's Law*, and is as follows:

1049. Mariotte's Law.—*The temperature remaining the same, the volume of a given quantity of gas varies inversely as the pressure.*

The meaning of this is : If the volume of the gas is diminished to $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{5}$, etc., of its former volume, the tension will be increased 2, 3, 5, etc., times, or if the outside pressure be increased 2, 3, 5, etc., times, the volume of the gas will be diminished to $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{5}$, etc., of its original volume, the temperature remaining constant. It also means that if a gas is under a certain pressure, and the pressure is diminished to $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{10}$, etc., of its original pressure, that the volume of the confined gas will be increased 2, 3, 10, etc., times—its tension decreasing at the same rate.

Suppose 3 cubic feet of air to be under a pressure of 60 pounds per square inch in a cylinder fitted with a movable piston; then, the product of the volume and pressure is $3 \times 60 = 180$. Let the volume be increased to 6 cubic feet, then the pressure will be 30 pounds per square inch, and $30 \times 6 = 180$, as before. Let the volume be increased to 24 cubic

feet, it is then $\frac{24}{3} = 8$ times its original volume, and the pressure is $\frac{1}{8}$ of its original pressure, or $60 \times \frac{1}{8} = 7\frac{1}{2}$ pounds, and $24 \times 7\frac{1}{2} = 180$, as in the two preceding cases. It will now be noticed that if a gas be enclosed within a confined space, and allowed to expand without losing any heat, *the product of the pressure, and the corresponding volume for one position of the piston, is the same as for any other position of the piston.* If the piston were to compress the air, the same result would be obtained.

Let p = pressure for one position of the piston;
p_1 = pressure for any other position of the piston;
v = volume corresponding to the pressure p;
v_1 = volume corresponding to the pressure p_1.

Then, $p\,v = p_1\,v_1$. **(53.)**

1050. Knowing the volume and the pressure for any position of the piston, and the volume for any other position, the pressure may be calculated, or, if the pressure is known for any other position, the volume may be calculated.

EXAMPLE.—If 1.875 cubic feet of air be under a pressure of 72 pounds per square inch (*a*) what will be the pressure when the volume is increased to 2 cubic feet? (*b*) to 3 cubic feet? (*c*) to 9 cubic feet?

SOLUTION.—Solving formula **53**, for p_1, the unknown pressure,

(*a*) $p_1 = \frac{p\,v}{v_1} = \frac{72 \times 1.875}{2} = 67\frac{1}{2}$ lb. per sq. in. Ans.

(*b*) $p_1 = \frac{72 \times 1.875}{3} = 45$ lb. per sq. in. Ans.

(*c*) $p_1 = \frac{72 \times 1.875}{9} = 15$ lb. per sq. in. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—Ten cubic feet of air have a tension of 5.6 pounds per square inch; (*a*) what is the volume when the tension is 4 pounds? (*b*) 8 pounds? (*c*) 25 pounds? (*d*) 100 pounds?

SOLUTION.—Solving formula **53**, for v_1,

(*a*) $v_1 = \frac{p\,v}{p_1} = \frac{5.6 \times 10}{4} = 14$ cu. ft. Ans.

(*b*) $v_1 = \frac{5.6 \times 10}{8} = 7$ cu. ft. Ans.

(*c*) $v_1 = \frac{5.6 \times 10}{25} = 2.24$ cu. ft. Ans.

(*d*) $v_1 = \frac{5.6 \times 10}{100} = .56$ cu. ft. Ans.

1051. NOTE.—There are two ways of measuring the pressure of a gas: by means of an instrument called a **manometer,** and by means of a **gauge.** The manometer generally used is practically the same as a mercurial barometer, except that the tube is much longer, so that pressures equal to several atmospheres may be measured, and is enlarged and bent into a U shape at the lower end; both lower and upper ends are open, the lower end being connected to the vessel containing the gas whose pressure it is desired to measure. The gauge is so common that no description of it will be given here. With both the manometer described above and the gauge, the pressures recorded are the amounts by which they exceed the atmospheric pressure, and are called the **gauge pressures.** To find the real pressure, called the **absolute pressure,** the atmospheric pressure must be added to the gauge pressure. In all formulas in which the pressure of a gas or steam is used, the absolute pressure must be used, unless the gauge pressure is distinctly specified as being the proper pressure to use. For convenience, all pressures given in Arts. **1039** to **1088,** inclusive, and in the questions referring to these articles, will be absolute pressures, and the word "absolute" will be omitted to avoid its constant repetition.

1052. As a necessary consequence of Mariotte's law, it may be stated that *the density of a gas varies directly as the pressure, and inversely as the volume; that is, the density increases as the pressure increases, and decreases as the volume increases.*

This is evident, since if a gas has a tension of 2 atmospheres, or $14.7 \times 2 = 29.4$ pounds per square inch, it will weigh twice as much as the same volume would if the tension was 1 atmosphere, or 14.7 pounds per square inch. For, let the volume be increased until it is twice as great as the original volume, the tension will then be 1 atmosphere. The total weight of the gas has not been changed, but there are now 2 cubic feet for every 1 cubic foot of the original volume, and the weight of 1 cubic foot now is only half as great as before. Thus, the density decreases as the volume increases, and as an increase of pressure causes a decrease of volume, the density increases as the pressure increases.

Let D be the density corresponding to the pressure p and volume v, and D_1 be the density corresponding to the pressure p_1 and volume v_1; then,

$$p : D = p_1 : D_1, \text{ or } p\,D_1 = p_1\,D, \qquad \textbf{(54.)}$$

and $$v : D_1 = v_1 : D, \text{ or } v\,D = v_1\,D_1. \qquad \textbf{(55.)}$$

Since the weight is proportional to the density, the weights may be used in place of the densities in formulas

54 and **55.** Thus, let W be the weight of a cubic foot of air or other gas, whose volume is v and pressure is p; let W_1 be the weight of a cubic foot when the volume is v_1 and pressure is p_1; then,

$$pW_1 = p_1 W. \qquad (56.)$$

$$vW = v_1 W_1. \qquad (57.)$$

EXAMPLE.—The weight of 1 cubic foot of air at a temperature of 60° F., and under a pressure of one atmosphere (14.7 pounds per square inch), is .0763 pound; what would be the weight per cubic foot if the volume were compressed until the tension was 5 atmospheres, the temperature still being 60° F.?

SOLUTION.—Applying formula **56**, $pW_1 = p_1 W$, or $1 \times W_1 = 5 \times .0763$. Hence, $W_1 = .3815$ lb. per cu. ft. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—If in the last example the air had expanded until the tension was 5 pounds per square inch, what would have been its weight per cubic foot?

SOLUTION.—Applying formula **56**, $pW_1 = p_1 W$. Here $p = 14.7$, $p_1 = 5$ and $W = .0763$. Hence, $14.7 \times W_1 = 5 \times .0763$, or $W_1 = \frac{.3815}{14.7} = .02595$ lb. per cu. ft. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—If 6.75 cubic feet of air, at a temperature of 60° F., and a pressure of one atmosphere, are compressed to 2.25 cubic feet (the temperature still remaining 60° F.), what is the weight of a cubic foot of the compressed air?

SOLUTION.—Applying formula **57**, $vW = v_1 W_1$, or $6.75 \times .0763 = 2.25 \times W_1$; hence, $W_1 = \frac{6.75 \times .0763}{2.25} = .2289$ lb. per cu. ft. Ans.

1053. In all that has been said before, it has been stated that the temperature was constant; the reason for this will now be explained. Suppose five cubic feet of air to be confined in a cylinder placed in a vacuum, so that there will be no pressure due to the atmosphere, and suppose the cylinder to be fitted with a piston weighing say 100 pounds, and having an area of 10 square inches. The tension of the gas will be $\frac{100}{10} = 10$ pounds per square inch. Suppose that the temperature of the air is 32° F., and that it is heated until the temperature is 33° F., i. e., the temperature is 1°, it will be found that the piston has risen a certain amount, and, consequently, the volume has increased, while the

pressure is the same as before, or 10 pounds per square inch. If more heat is applied until the temperature of the gas is 34° F., it will be found that the piston has again risen, and the volume again increased, while the pressure still remains the same. It will be found that for every increase of temperature there will be a corresponding increase of volume. The law which expresses this change, is called *Gay-Lussac's Law*, and is as follows:

1054. Gay-Lussac's Law.—*If the pressure remains constant, every increase of temperature of 1° F. produces in a given quantity of gas an expansion of $\frac{1}{492}$ of its volume at 32° F.*

If the pressure remains constant, it will also be found that every decrease of temperature of 1° F., will cause a decrease of $\frac{1}{492}$ of the volume at 32° F.

Let v = original volume of gas;
v_1 = final volume of gas;
t = temperature corresponding to volume v;
t_1 = temperature corresponding to volume v_1.

Then, $$v_1 = v\left(\frac{460 + t_1}{460 + t}\right). \qquad (58.)$$

That is, *the volume of gas after heating (or cooling) equals the original volume, multiplied by 460, plus the final temperature, divided by 460, plus the original temperature.*

EXAMPLE.— 5 cubic feet of air at a temperature of 45°, are heated under constant pressure up to 177°; what is its volume?

SOLUTION.—Applying formula **58**,

$$v_1 = v\left(\frac{460 + t_1}{460 + t}\right) = 5\left(\frac{460 + 177}{460 + 45}\right) = 6.307 \text{ cu. ft. Ans.}$$

1055. Suppose that a certain volume of gas is confined in a vessel so that it cannot expand; in other words, suppose that the piston of the cylinder before mentioned to be fastened so that it cannot move. Let a gauge be placed on the cylinder so that the tension of the confined gas can be registered. If the gas is heated, it will be found that for every increase of temperature of 1° F., there will be a corresponding increase of $\frac{1}{492}$ of the tension. That is, the

volume remaining constant, the tension increases $\frac{1}{460}$ of the original tension for every degree rise of temperature.

Let p = the original tension;
t = the corresponding temperature;
p_1 = final tension;
t_1 = final temperature.

Then, $$p_1 = p\left(\frac{460 + t_1}{460 + t}\right). \qquad \textbf{(59.)}$$

That is, *if a certain quantity of gas be heated (or cooled) from $t°$ to $t_1°$, the volume remaining constant, the resulting tension p_1 will be equal to the original tension, multiplied by 460, plus the final temperature, divided by 460, plus the original temperature.*

EXAMPLE.—If a certain quantity of air is heated under constant volume from 45° to 177°, what is the resulting tension, the original tension being 14.7 pounds per square inch?

SOLUTION.—Applying formula **59**,

$$p_1 = p\left(\frac{460 + t_1}{460 + t}\right) = 14.7\left(\frac{460 + 177}{460 + 45}\right) = 18.542 \text{ lb. per sq. in. Ans.}$$

1056. According to the modern and now generally accepted theory of heat, the atoms and molecules of all bodies are in an incessant state of vibration. The vibratory movement in the liquids is faster than in the solids, and in the gases, faster than in either of the other two. Any increase of heat increases the vibrations, and a decrease of heat decreases them. From experiments and calculations based upon higher mathematics, it has been concluded that at 460° below zero, on the Fahrenheit scale, all these vibrations cease. This point is called the **absolute zero,** and all temperatures reckoned from this point are called the **absolute temperatures.** The point of absolute zero has never been reached, the lowest recorded temperature being about 393° F. below zero, but, nevertheless, it has a meaning, and is used in many formulas, being nearly always denoted by T. The ordinary temperatures are denoted by t. When the word temperature alone is used, the meaning is the same as ordinarily used, but when absolute temperature is specified, 460° F. must be added to the temperature.

The absolute temperature corresponding to 212° F. is $460 + 212 = 672°$ F. If the absolute temperature is given, the ordinary temperature may be found by subtracting 460 from the absolute temperature. Thus, the absolute temperature being 520° F., what is the temperature?

$$520° - 460° = 60°.$$

Let p = pressure in pounds per square inch;
V = volume of air in cubic feet;
T = absolute temperature;
W = weight in pounds.

Then, $pV = .37052\ T.$ **(60.)**

That is, *the pressure in pounds per square inch, multiplied by the volume of the air in cubic feet, equals .37052 times the absolute temperature corresponding to the pressure p and volume V.*

In this formula, the weight of the air is 1 pound.

EXAMPLE.—The pressure upon 9 cubic feet of air weighing 1 pound is 20 pounds per square inch; what is the temperature?

SOLUTION.—Applying formula **60,** $p\,V = .37052\ T$, or $20 \times 9 = .37052\ T$; hence, $T = \frac{180}{.37052} = 485.8°$, nearly. $485.8° - 460 = 25.8°$, the temperature. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—What is the volume of 1 pound of air whose temperature is 60° F. under a pressure of one atmosphere?

SOLUTION.—Applying formula **60,** $p\,V = .37052\ T$. Substituting, $14.7 \times V = .37052 \times (460 + 60) = .37052 \times 520$, or $V = \frac{.37052 \times 520}{14.7} =$ 13.107 cubic feet. Ans.

1057. If the weight of the air be greater or less than 1 pound, the following formula must be used:

$$pV = .37052\ W\ T. \qquad \textbf{(61.)}$$

That is, *the pressure in pounds per square inch, multiplied by the volume in cubic feet, equals .37052 times the weight in pounds multiplied by the absolute temperature.*

EXAMPLE.— 3 cubic feet of air weighing .35 pound, are under a pressure of 48 pounds per square inch; what is the temperature of the air?

SOLUTION.—Applying formula **61,** $p\,V = .37052\,WT$. Substituting, $48 \times 3 = .37052 \times .35 \times T$, or $T = \frac{48 \times 3}{.37052 \times .35} = 1{,}110.4°$. Then, $1{,}110.4° - 460° = 650.4°$. Ans.

EXAMPLE.—What is the weight of 1 cubic foot of air at a temperature of 32°, and under a pressure of one atmosphere?

SOLUTION.—Applying formula **61**, $pV = .37052\,WT$. Substituting, $14.7 \times 1 = .37052 \times (460 + 32) \times W$, or

$$W = \frac{14.7}{.37052 \times 492} = .0806382 \text{ lb.} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

If the pressure be taken as 14.69856 pounds per square inch, and the absolute zero as 459.4°, instead of 460° below zero, and if .370514 be used, instead of .37052, more exact values, the weight of 1 cubic foot would be $\frac{14.69856}{.370514 \times 491.4} = .08073$ lb., nearly.

EXAMPLE.—What is the exact volume of 1 pound of air at a temperature of 32°, and at a pressure of one atmosphere? Take absolute zero at 459.4, and the pressure as 14.69856 pounds per square inch.

SOLUTION.— $pV = .370514\,WT$, or $14.69856 \times V = .370514 \times 1 \times (459.4 + 32)$. $V = \frac{.370514 \times 491.4}{14.69856} = 12.387$ cu. ft. Ans.

1058. If in the formula $pV = .37052\,WT$, both sides of the equation be divided by T (which, of course, does not alter the equality), there results the expression $\frac{pV}{T} = .37052\,W$. Let p_1, V_1 and T_1 represent the pressure, volume and temperature of the same weight of air in another state; then, $p_1V_1 = .37052\,WT_1$. Dividing both sides by T_1, $\frac{p_1V_1}{T_1} = .37052\,W$. Therefore, since $\frac{pV}{T}$ and $\frac{p_1V_1}{T_1}$ are equal to the same thing (i. e., $.37052\,W$), they are equal to each other, and

$$\frac{pV}{T} = \frac{p_1V_1}{T_1} \qquad (62.)$$

This very important formula is the complete expression of Gay-Lussac's law, and is true for any of the so-called permanent gases. It was from this formula that formulas **58** and **59** were derived. Thus, let the pressure be constant; then, $p = p_1$, and $\frac{pV}{T} = \frac{pV_1}{T_1}$, or $V_1 = \frac{VT_1}{T} = V\left(\frac{460 + t_1}{460 + t}\right)$. Similarly, letting the volume be constant, $V = V_1$, and $\frac{pV}{T}$

$= \frac{p_1 V}{T_1}$, or $p_1 = \frac{p T_1}{T} = p\left(\frac{460 + t_1}{460 + t}\right)$. So, also, by letting the temperature be constant, $T = T_1$ and $\frac{pV}{T} = \frac{p_1 V_1}{T}$; or $pV = p_1 V_1$, which is the same as formula **53.**

1059. In formulas **53, 62, 63,** and **64,** it matters not with what units the pressures and volumes are measured, except that they must be the same throughout the same example, and the pressures must always be *absolute pressures.*

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. A vessel contains 25 cubic feet of gas at a pressure of 18 pounds per square inch; if 125 cubic feet of gas having the same pressure are forced into the vessel, what will be the resulting pressure?
Ans. 108 lb. per sq. in.

2. A pound of air has a temperature of 126°, and a pressure of 1 atmosphere; what volume does it occupy? Ans. 14.77 cu. ft.

3. The volume of steam in the cylinder of a steam engine at cut-off is 1.35 cubic foot, and the pressure is 85 pounds per square inch; if the pressure at the end of the stroke is 25 pounds per square inch, what is the new volume? Ans. 4.59 cu. ft.

4. A certain quantity of air has a volume of 26.7 cubic feet; a pressure of 19.3 pounds per square inch, and a temperature of 42°; what is the weight? Ans. 2.77 lb.

5. A receiver contains 180 cubic feet of gas at a pressure of 20 pounds per square inch; if a vessel holding 12 cubic feet, to be filled from the receiver until its pressure is 20 pounds per square inch, what will be the pressure in the receiver? Ans. 18⅔ lb. per sq. in.

6. 10 cubic feet of air having a pressure of 22 pounds per square inch, and a temperature of 75°, are heated until the temperature is 300°; the volume remaining the same, what is the new pressure?
Ans. 31.25 lb. per sq. in.

7. If a spherical shell whose outside diameter is 18 inches, has a part of the air within it removed until the pressure is 5 pounds per square inch, what is the total pressure due to the atmosphere tending to crush the shell? Ans. 9,873.42 lb.

THE MIXING OF GASES.

1060. If two liquids which do not act chemically upon each other are mixed together and allowed to stand, it will be found that after a time the two liquids have separated,

and that the heavier has fallen to the bottom. If two equal vessels, containing gases of different densities, be put in communication with each other, they will be found to have mixed in equal proportions after a short time. If one vessel be higher than the other, and the heavier gas be in the lower vessel, the same result will occur. The greater the difference of the densities of the two gases, the quicker they will mix. It is assumed that no chemical action takes place between the two gases. When the two gases have the same temperature and pressure, the pressure of the mixture will be the same; this is evident, since the total volume has not been changed, and unless the volume or temperature changes, the pressure cannot change. This property of the mixing of gases is a very valuable one, since, if they acted like liquids, carbonic acid gas (the result of combustion), which is $1\frac{1}{2}$ times as heavy as air, would remain next to the earth, instead of dispersing into the atmosphere, the result being that no animal life could exist.

1061. Mixtures of Equal Volumes of Gases Having Unequal Pressures.—*If two gases having equal volumes and temperatures, but different pressures, be mixed in a vessel whose volume equals one of the equal volumes of the gas, the pressure of the mixture will be equal to the sum of the two pressures, provided that the temperature remains the same as before.*

EXAMPLE.—Two vessels containing 3 cubic feet of gas, each at a temperature of 60°, and subjected to pressures of 40 pounds and 25 pounds per square inch, respectively, are placed in communication with each other, and all the gas is compressed into one vessel. If the temperature of the mixture is also 60°, what is the pressure?

SOLUTION.—According to the rule just given, the pressure will be $40 + 25 = 65$ pounds per square inch. This may be proven by applications of Mariotte's law; thus, compress the gas whose pressure is 25 pounds per square inch until its pressure is 40 pounds; its volume may be found thus: $p\,v = p_1\,v_1$, or $25 \times 3 = 40 \times v$; whence, $v = 1.875$ cubic feet. Let communication be established between the two vessels, the pressure will evidently be 40 pounds and the total volume $3 + 1.875 = 4.875$ cubic feet. If this be compressed until the volume is 3 cubic feet, the temperature remaining at 60° throughout the whole operation, the final pressure may be found by formula **53**, $p\,v = p_1\,v_1$.

Thus, $40 \times 4.875 = p_1 \times 3$, and $p_1 = \frac{40 \times 4.875}{3} = 65$ pounds per square inch, as before.

1062. Mixture of Two Gases Having Unequal Volumes and Pressures.

Let v and p be the volume and pressure, respectively, of one of the gases.

Let v_1 and p_1 be the volume and pressure, respectively, of the other gas.

Let V and P be the volume and pressure, respectively, of the mixture. Then, if the temperature remains the same,

$$V P = v p + v_1 p_1. \qquad \textbf{(63.)}$$

That is, *if the temperature is constant, the volume after mixture, multiplied by the resulting pressure, equals the volume of one gas before mixture multiplied by its pressure, plus the volume of the other gas multiplied by its pressure.*

EXAMPLE.—Two gases of the same temperature, having volumes of 7 cubic feet and 4½ cubic feet, and whose pressures are 27 pounds and 18 pounds per square inch, respectively, are mixed together in a vessel whose volume is 10 cubic feet. The temperature of the two gases and of the mixture being 60° F., what is the resulting pressure?

SOLUTION.—Applying formula **63**, $P V = p v + p_1 v_1$, or $P \times 10 = 27 \times 7 + 4\frac{1}{2} \times 18$. Hence, $P = \frac{189 + 81}{10} = 27$ lb. per sq. in. Ans.

1063. Mixture of Two Volumes of Air Having Unequal Pressures, Volumes, and Temperatures.

If a body of air having a temperature t_1, a pressure p_1, and a volume v_1 be mixed with another volume of air having a temperature t_2, a pressure p_2, and a volume v_2, to form a volume V having a pressure P and a temperature t, then, either the new temperature t, the new volume V, or the new pressure P may be found, if the other two quantities are known, by the following formula, in which T_1, T_2, and T are the absolute temperatures corresponding to t_1, t_2, and t:

$$P V = \left[\frac{p_1 v_1}{T_1} + \frac{p_2 v_2}{T_2}\right] T. \qquad \textbf{(64.)}$$

EXAMPLE.—Five cubic feet of air having a tension of 30 pounds per square inch, and a temperature of 80° F., are required to be compressed together with 11 cubic feet of air having a tension of 21 pounds per square inch, and a temperature of 45° F., in a vessel whose cubical contents are 8 cubic feet. The new pressure is required to be 45 pounds per square inch. What is the temperature of the mixture?

SOLUTION.—Substituting in formula **64**,

$45 \times 8 = \left[\frac{30 \times 5}{540} + \frac{21 \times 11}{505}\right] \times T$, or $360 = .7352\ T$. Hence, $T = \frac{360}{.7352} = 489.66°$, nearly, and $t = 29.66°$. Ans.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. Two vessels contain air at pressures of 60 and 88 pounds per square inch. The volume of each vessel is 8.47 cubic feet. If all of the air in both vessels is removed to another vessel, and the new pressure is 100 pounds per square inch, what is the volume of the vessel, the temperature being the same throughout?

Ans. 12.11 cu. ft.

2. A vessel contains 11.88 cubic feet of air at a pressure of 33.3 pounds per square inch. It is desired to increase the pressure to 40 pounds per square inch by supplying air from a second vessel which contains 19.6 cubic feet of air at a pressure of 60 pounds per square inch. What will be the pressure in the second vessel after the pressure in the first has been raised to 40 pounds per square inch?

Ans. 55.96 lb. per sq. in.

3. If 4.8 cubic feet of air having a tension of 52 pounds per square inch and a temperature of 170° are mixed with 13 cubic feet having a tension of 78 pounds per square inch and a temperature of 265°, what must be the volume of the vessel containing the mixture in order that the tension of the mixture may be 30 pounds per square inch and the temperature 80°? Ans. 32.31 cu. ft.

PNEUMATIC MACHINES.

THE AIR PUMP.

1064. The **air pump** is an instrument for removing air from an enclosed space. A section of the principal parts is shown in Fig. 192, and the complete instrument in Fig. 193. The closed vessel R is called the **receiver**, and the space which it encloses is that from which it is desired to remove the air. The receiver is usually made of glass, and

the edges are ground so as to be perfectly air-tight. When made in the form shown, it is called a **bell jar receiver.**

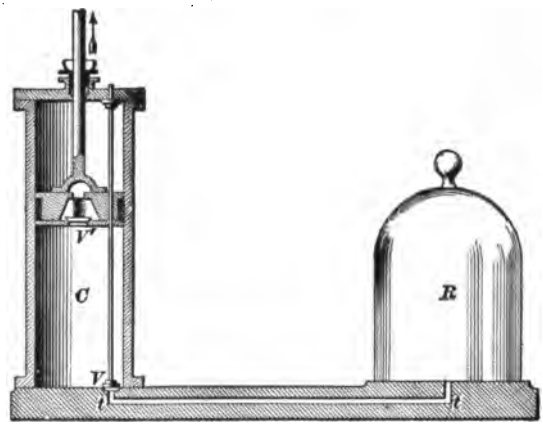

FIG. 192.

The receiver rests upon a horizontal plate in the center of which is an opening communicating with the pump cylinder *C* by means of a bent tube *t*. The pump piston fits the cylinder accurately, and has a valve *V'* opening upwards. At the junction of the tube with the cylinder is another valve *V* also opening upwards. When the piston is raised the valve *V'* closes, and, since no air can get into the cylinder from above, the piston leaves a vacuum behind it. The pressure on top of *V* being now removed, the tension of the air in the receiver *R* causes *V* to rise; the air in the receiver then expands and occupies the

FIG. 193.

space displaced by the piston, the space in the tube t and in the receiver R. The piston is now pushed down, the valve V closes, the valve V' opens, and the air in C escapes. The lower valve V is sometimes supported, as shown in Fig. 192, by a metal rod passing through the piston and fitting it somewhat tightly. When the piston is raised or lowered, this rod moves with it. A button near the upper end of the rod confines its motion to within very narrow limits, the piston sliding upon the rod during the greater part of the journey.

1065. Degrees and Limits of Exhaustion.—Suppose that the volume of R and t together is four times that of C, and that there are, say, 200 grains of air in R and t, and 50 grains in C, when the piston is at the top of the cylinder. At the end of the first stroke, when the piston is again at the top, 50 grains of air in the cylinder C will have been removed, and the 200 grains in R and t will occupy the spaces R, t, and C. The ratio between the sum of the spaces R and t and the total space $R+t+C$ is $\frac{4}{5}$; hence, $200 \times \frac{4}{5} = 160$ grains = the weight of air in R and t after the first stroke. After the second stroke, the weight of the air in R and t would be $(200 \times \frac{4}{5} \times \frac{4}{5} = 200 \times (\frac{4}{5})^2 = 200 \times \frac{16}{25} = 128$ grains. At the end of the third stroke, the weight would be $[200 \times (\frac{4}{5})^2] \times \frac{4}{5} = 200 \times (\frac{4}{5})^3 = 200 \times \frac{64}{125} = 102.4$ grains. At the end of n strokes, the weight would be $200 \times (\frac{4}{5})^n$. It is evident that *it is impossible to remove all of the air that is contained in R and t by this method.* It requires an exceedingly good air pump to reduce the tension of the air in R to $\frac{1}{50}$ of an inch of mercury. When the air has become so rarefied as this, the valve V' will not lift, and, consequently, no more air can be exhausted.

1066. Sprengel's Air Pump.—In Fig. 194, $c\ d$ is a glass tube longer than 30 inches, open at both ends, and connected by means of India rubber tubing with a funnel A filled with mercury and supported by a stand. Mercury is allowed to fall into this tube at a rate regulated by a clamp at c. The lower end of the tube $c\ d$ fits in the flask B, which

has a spout at the side a little higher than the lower end of $c\,d$; the upper part has a branch at x to which a receiver R can be tightly fixed. When the clamp at c is opened the first portions of the mercury which run out close the tube and prevent air from entering from below. These drops of mercury act like little pistons, carrying the air in front of them and forcing it out through the bottom of the tube. The air in R expands to fill the tube every time that a drop of mercury falls, thus creating a partial vacuum in R, which becomes more nearly complete as the process goes on. The escaping mercury falls into the dish H, from which it can be poured back into the funnel from time to time. As the exhaustion from R goes on, the mercury rises in the tube $c\,d$ until, when the exhaustion is complete, it forms a continuous column 30 inches high; in other words, it is a barometer, whose Torricellian vacuum is the receiver R.

FIG. 194.

This instrument necessarily requires a great deal of time for its operation, but the results are very complete, a vacuum of $\frac{1}{43000}$ of an inch of mercury being sometimes obtained. By use of chemicals in addition to the above, a vacuum of $\frac{1}{650000}$ of an inch of mercury has been obtained.

1067. NOTE.—A theoretically perfect vacuum is sometimes called a **Torricellian vacuum.**

1068. Magdeburg Hemispheres.—By means of the two hemispheres shown in Fig. 195, it can be proven that the atmosphere presses upon a body equally in all directions. They were invented by Otto Von Guericke, of Magdeburg, and are called the **Magdeburg hemispheres.** One of the hemispheres is provided with a stop-cock, by which it can be screwed on to an air pump. The edges fit accurately and are well greased, so as to be air-tight. As long as the hemispheres contain air, they can be separated with ease; but when the air in the interior is pumped out by means of an air pump, they can be separated only with great difficulty. The force required to separate them will be equal to the area of the largest circle of the hemisphere (projected area) in square inches, multiplied by 14.7 pounds.

FIG. 195.

This force will be the same in whatever position the hemisphere may be held, thus proving that the pressure of air upon it is the same in all directions.

1069. The Weight Lifter.—The pressure of the atmosphere is very clearly shown by means of an apparatus like that illustrated in Fig. 196. Here, a cylinder fitted with a piston is held in suspension by a chain. At the top of the cylinder is a plug *A*, which can be taken out. This plug is removed, the piston pushed up (the force necessary being equal to the weight of the piston and rod *B*) until it touches the cylinder head. The plug is then screwed in, and the piston will remain at the top until a weight has been hung on the rod equal to the area of the piston, multiplied by 14.7 pounds, less the weight of the piston and rod. If a force was applied to the rod sufficiently great to force the

piston downwards, it would raise any weight less than the above to the top of the cylinder. Suppose the weight to be removed, and the piston to be supported, say midway of the length of the cylinder. Let the plug be removed and air admitted above the piston, then screw the plug back into its place; if the piston be shoved upwards, the farther up it goes, the greater will be the force necessary to push it, on account of the compression of the air. If the piston is of large diameter, it will also require a great force to pull it out of the cylinder, as a little consideration will show. For example, let the diameter of the piston be 20 inches, the length of the cylinder 36 inches, plus the thickness of the piston, and the weight of the piston and rod 100 pounds. If the piston is in the middle of the cylinder, there will be 18 inches of space above it, and 18 inches of space below it. The area of the piston is $20^2 \times .7854 = 314.16$ square inches, and the atmospheric pressure upon it is $314.16 \times 14.7 = 4{,}618$ pounds, nearly. In order to shove the piston upwards 9 inches, the pressure upon it must be twice as great, or 9,236 pounds, and to this must be added the weight of the piston and rod, or $9{,}236 + 100 = 9{,}336$ pounds. The force necessary to cause the piston to move upwards 9 inches would then be $9{,}336 - 4{,}618 = 4{,}718$ pounds. Now, suppose the piston to be moved downwards until it is just on the point of being pulled out of the cylinder. The volume above it will then be twice as great as before, and the pressure one-half as great, or $4{,}618 \div 2 = 2{,}309$ pounds. The total upward pressure will be the pressure of the atmosphere less the weight of the piston and rod, or $4{,}618 - 100 = 4{,}518$ pounds, and the force necessary to pull it downwards to this point will be $4{,}518 - 2{,}309 = 2{,}209$ pounds.

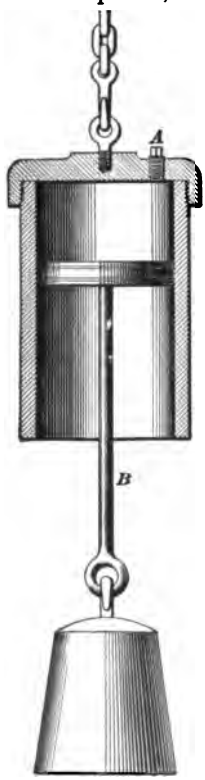

FIG. 196.

1070. The Baroscope.—The buoyant effect of air is very clearly shown by means of an instrument called the **baroscope,** shown in Fig. 197. It consists of a scale beam, from one extremity of which is suspended a small weight, and from the other a hollow copper sphere. In air they exactly balance each other; but when placed under the receiver of an air pump and the air exhausted, the sphere sinks, showing that it is really heavier than the small weight. Before the air is exhausted, each body is buoyed up by the weight of the air it displaces, and since the sphere displaces the most air, it loses more weight by reason of this displacement than the small weight. Suppose that the volume of the sphere exceeds that of the weight by 10 cubic inches; the weight of this volume of air is 3.1 grains. If this weight be added to the small weight, it will overbalance the sphere in air, but will exactly balance it in a vacuum.

FIG. 197.

AIR COMPRESSORS.

1071. For many purposes compressed air is preferable to steam or other gas for use as a motive power. In such cases **air compressors** are used to compress the air. These are made in many forms, but the most common one is to place a cylinder, called the *air cylinder*, in front of the cross-head of a steam engine, so that the piston of the air cylinder can be driven by attaching its piston rod to the cross-head, in a manner similar to a steam pump. A cross-section of the air cylinder of a compressor of this kind is shown in Fig. 198, in which A is the piston and B is the piston rod, driven by the cross-head of a steam engine not shown in the figure. Both ends of the lower half of the cylinder are fitted with inlet valves D and D', which allow the air to enter the

cylinder, and both ends of the upper half are fitted with discharge valves F and F', which allow the air to escape from the cylinder after it has been compressed to the required pressure.

Suppose the piston A to be moving in the direction of the arrow; then the inlet valves D in the left-hand end of the cylinder from which the piston is moving will be forced inwards by the pressure of the atmosphere, which over-

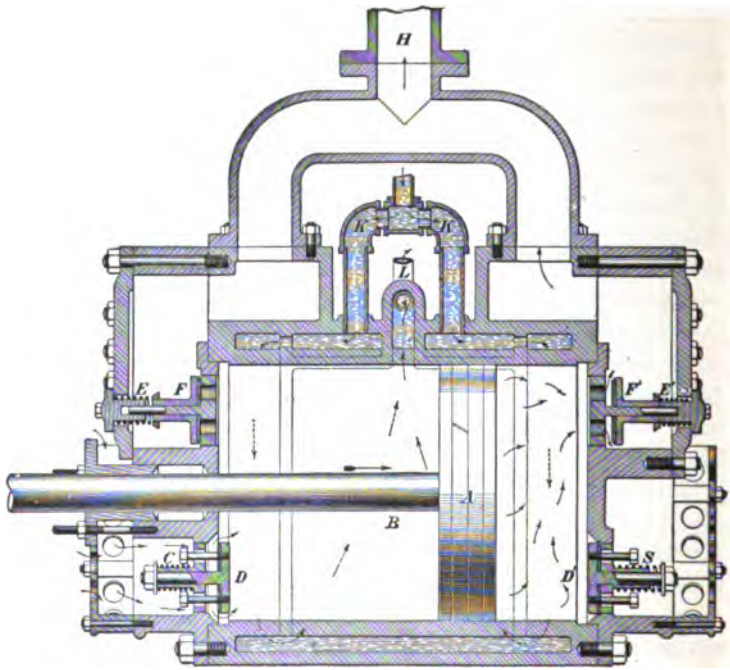

FIG. 198.

comes the resistance of the light spring C, thus allowing the air to flow in and fill the cylinder. On the other side of the piston, the air is being compressed, and, consequently, it acts with the springs S to force the inlet valves D' in the right-hand end of the cylinder to their seats. In the right-hand end of the cylinder, the discharge valves F' are opened when the pressure of the air in the cylinder is great enough to overcome the resistance of the light springs E'

and the tension of the air in the passages leading to the discharge pipe *H*, and the discharge valves *F* are pressed against their seats by the springs *E* and the tension of the air in the passages. Suppose it is desired to compress the air to 59 pounds per square inch, and we wish to find at what point of the stroke the discharge valves will open. Now, 59 pounds per square inch equals a pressure of 4 atmospheres, very nearly; hence, when the pressure in the cylinder becomes great enough to force air out through the discharge valves, the volume must be one-quarter of the volume at atmospheric pressure, or the valves will open when the piston has traveled three-quarters of its stroke, provided the air be compressed at constant temperature.

The air, after being discharged from the cylinder, passes out through the delivery pipe *H*, and from thence is conveyed to its destination. It was shown in the early part of this paper that when air or any other gas was compressed its temperature was increased. For high pressures this increase of temperature becomes a serious consideration, for two reasons: 1st. When the air is discharged at a high temperature, the pressure falls considerably when it has cooled down to its normal temperature, and this represents a serious loss in the economical working of the machine. 2d. The alternate heating and cooling of the compressor cylinder by the hot and cold air is very destructive to it, and increases the wear to a great extent. To prevent the air from heating, cooling devices are resorted to, the most common one being the so-called **water jacket.** This is effected in the following manner: The cylinder walls are hollow, as shown in the cut; the cold water enters this hollow space in the cylinder wall through the pipe *K K*, and flows around the cylinder, finally passing out through the discharge pipe *L*. The water tends to keep the cylinder walls cold, and these cool the air as it is compressed.

1072. The Cartesian Diver. — The instrument shown in Fig. 199, called the **cartesian diver,** illustrates the elasticity of air and the transference of pressure in all

directions in water. It consists of a glass jar filled with water, having a rubber bulb at the top filled with air. The image in the jar is made of glass and is hollow, the weight being less than an equal volume of water, so that it will float at the top of the jar. The tail of the image has a hole in it, the water being prevented from getting inside of the image by the tension of the air within it. If the bulb be squeezed, the air in it will be forced out, creating a pressure upon the water which, being transferred in all directions, causes the water to flow into the tail of the image, compressing the air inside, and thus causing it to fall to the bottom of the jar. When the bulb is released, the air flows back into it; the pressure upon the water is removed, the air within the image expands; the image, again becoming lighter than water, rises to the top of the jar.

FIG. 199.

1073. Hero's Fountain.—**Hero's fountain** derives its name from its inventor, Hero, who lived at Alexandria 120 B. C. It is shown in Fig. 200. It depends for its operation upon the elastic properties of air. It consists of a brass dish *A*, and two glass globes *B* and *C*. The dish communicates with

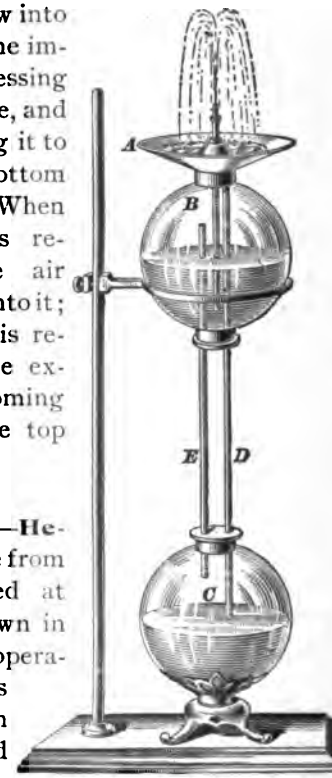

FIG. 200.

the lower part of the globe C by a long tube D, and another tube E connects the two globes. A third tube passes through the dish A to the lower part of the globe B. This last tube being taken out, the globe B is partially filled with water; the tube is then replaced and water is poured into the dish. The water flows through the tube D into the lower globe, and expels the air, which is forced into the upper globe. The air thus compressed acts upon the water and makes it jet out through the shortest tube, as represented in the figure. Were it not for the resistance of the atmosphere and friction, the water would rise to a height above the water in the dish equal to the difference of the level of the water in the two globes.

THE SIPHON.

1074. The action of the **siphon** illustrates the effect of atmospheric pressure. It is simply a bent tube of unequal branches, open at both ends, and is used to convey a liquid from a higher point to a lower, over an intermediate point higher than either. In Fig. 201, A and B are two vessels, B being lower than A, and $A\ C\ B$ is the bent tube or siphon. Suppose this tube to be filled with water and placed in the vessels, as shown, with the short branch $A\ C$ in the vessel A. The water will flow from the vessel A into B, so long as the level of the water in B is below the level of the water in A, and the level of the water in A is above the lower end of the tube $A\ C$. The atmospheric pressure upon the surfaces of A and B tends to force the water up the tubes $A\ C$ and $B\ C$. When the siphon is filled with water, each of these pressures is counteracted in part by

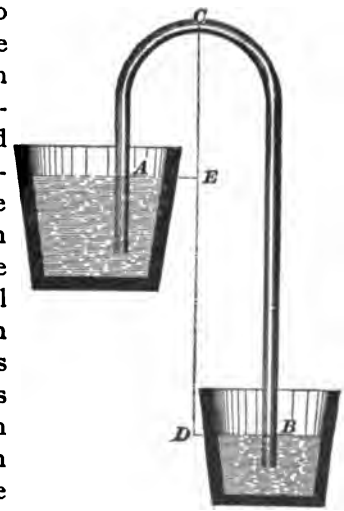

FIG. 201.

the pressure of the water in that branch of the siphon which is immersed in the water upon which the pressure is exerted. The atmospheric pressure opposed to the weight of the longer column of water will, therefore, be more resisted than that opposed to the weight of the shorter column; consequently, the pressure exerted upon the shorter column will be greater than that upon the longer column, and this excess pressure will produce motion.

Let A = the area of the tube in square inches.

$h = DC$ = the vertical distance in inches between the surface of the water in B and the highest point of the center line of the tube.

$h_1 = EC$ = the distance in inches between the surface of the water in A and the highest point of the center line of the tube.

The weight of the water in the short column is $.03617\ A\ h_1$, and the resultant atmospheric pressure, tending to force the water up the short column, is $14.7 \times A - .03617\ A\ h_1$. The weight of the water in the long column is $.03617\ A\ h$, and the resultant atmospheric pressure, tending to force the water up the long column, is $14.7\ A - .03617\ A\ h$. The difference between these two is $(14.7\ A - .03617\ A\ h_1) - (14.7\ A - .03617\ A\ h) = .03617\ A(h - h_1)$. But $h - h_1 = ED$ = the difference between the levels of the water in the two vessels. To find the discharge from a siphon, use the difference $h - h_1$, reduced to feet, as the head, and the total length of the siphon between the two water levels, as the length of the pipe; the discharge may then be calculated by formula **50**, Art. **1033**.

It will be noticed that the short column must not be higher than 34 feet for water, or the siphon will not work, since the pressure of the atmosphere will not support a column of water that is higher than 34 feet; 28 feet is considered to be the greatest height for which a siphon will work well.

1075. Intermittent Springs.—Sometimes a spring is observed to flow for a time and then cease; then, after an interval, to flow again for a time. The generally accepted

explanation of this is that there is an underground reservoir fed with water through fissures in the earth, as shown in Fig. 202. The outlet for the water is shaped like a siphon, as shown. When the water in the reservoir reaches the same height as the highest point of outlet, it flows out until the

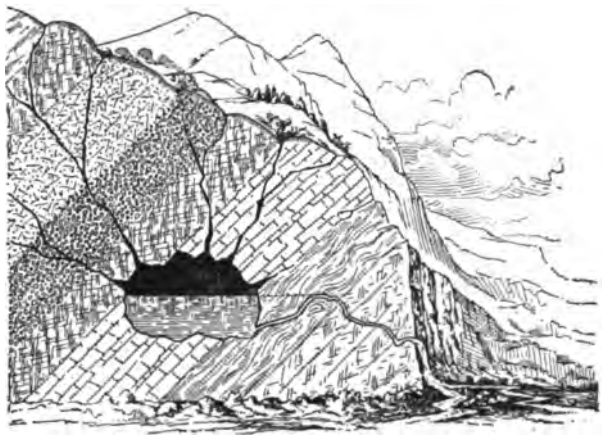

FIG. 202.

level of the water in the reservoir falls below the mouth of the siphon, the water flowing out of the reservoir faster than it is supplied to it. This flow then ceases until the water in the reservoir has again reached the level of the highest point of the siphon.

THE INJECTOR.

1076. A section of an injector is shown in Fig. 203. There are many different kinds of these instruments, but the principle is the same in all. When they are used for lifting water from a point below the discharge orifice and forcing it into the boiler of a steam engine or locomotive, they depend for their lifting action upon the creation of a partial vacuum by the action of steam. In the injector shown in Fig. 203, F is the connection for the steam pipe from the boiler, P is the connection for the pipe from the water supply, N is the connection to which the discharge pipe leading to the boiler

is attached, and the waste water and steam are discharged through the **overflow** nozzle *O*.

The method of operation is as follows: The valve *B* is first opened by turning the wheel *W*; the **primer** valve *R* is then opened by the handle *J*, thus permitting steam to flow through the passage *E* and a connection, not shown in the figure, to the nozzle *u*. From *u* the jet of steam rushes out through *O*. A passage connects the chamber surrounding *u* with the space above the valve *L*. The jet of steam from *u* out through *O* carries with it the air in the chamber to

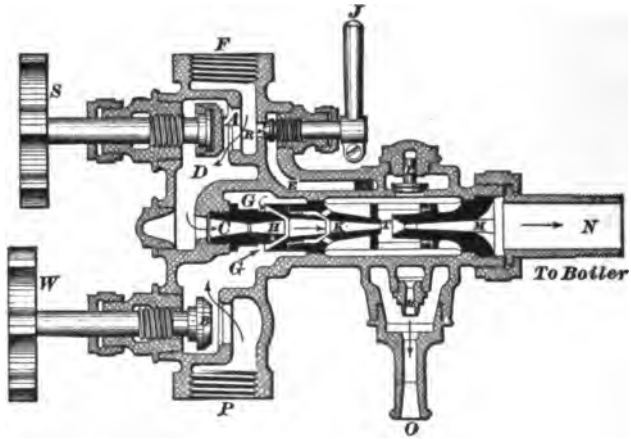

FIG. 203.

which *O* is connected, thus forming a partial vacuum in the space above *L*; the air in the passages *D*, *C*, *G*, *H*, *K*, *T*, and in the water pipe connected at *P* is thus drawn out through the valve *L*, and a partial vacuum is formed, which permits the pressure of the atmosphere to force water through *P* until it finally fills the passages and flows out through *L* and the overflow nozzle *O*. As soon as water appears at *O*, the valve *R* is closed and the main steam valve *A* is opened by the wheel *S*, thus admitting steam to the passages *C*, *H*, *K*. This steam draws water from *G* through the opening surrounding *H* and discharges it through *K* with such a high velocity that it rushes past

the opening T into the nozzle M and thence into the boiler.

THE LOCOMOTIVE BLAST.

1077. Fig. 204 shows the front end of a locomotive. E is the exhaust pipe, the center of which is directly in line with the center of the smokestack S. T, T are the tubes through which the hot furnace gases are discharged. The

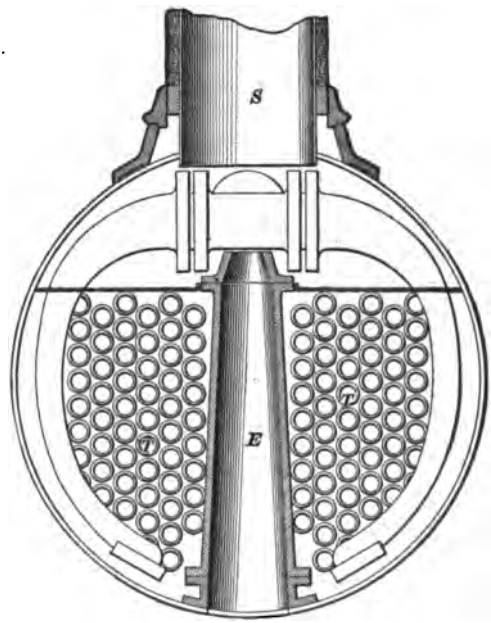

FIG. 204.

exhaust steam has a pressure of about two pounds above the atmosphere, and rushes through the exhaust pipe E and up the smokestack S with a very high velocity, taking the air out with it, and producing a partial vacuum in the space in front of the tubes. No air can get in this space except through the grates of the fire-box; consequently, this partial vacuum created in front of the tubes as described causes an influx of air through the grate, and produces the **forced draft,** or **blast.** The faster the engine runs, the greater the quantity of air drawn through the grate.

PUMPS.

1078. The Suction Pump.—A section of an ordinary suction pump is shown in Fig. 205. Suppose the piston to be at the bottom of the cylinder and to be just on the point of moving upwards in the direction of the arrow. As the piston rises it leaves a vacuum behind it, and the atmospheric pressure upon the surface of the water in the well causes it to rise in the pipe *P*, for the same reason that the mercury rises in the barometer tube. The water rushes up

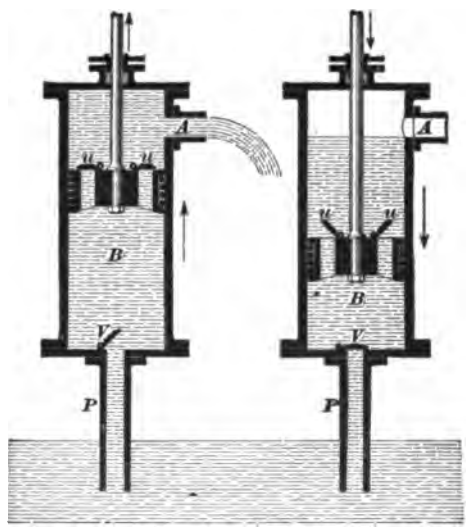

FIG. 205.

the pipe and lifts the valve *V*, filling the empty space in the cylinder *B* displaced by the piston. When the piston has reached the end of its stroke, the water entirely fills the space between the bottom of the piston and the bottom of the cylinder and also the pipe *P*. The instant that the piston begins its down stroke, the water in the chamber *B* tends to fall back into the well, and its weight forces the valve *V* to its seat, thus preventing any downward flow of the water. The piston now tends to compress the water in the chamber *B*, but this is prevented through the opening of the valves *u*, *u*

in the piston. When the piston has reached the end of its downward stroke, the weight of the water above closes the valves u, u. All the water resting on the top of the piston is then lifted with the piston on its upward stroke, and discharged through the spout A, the valve V again opening, and the water filling the space below the piston as before.

It is evident that the distance between the valve V and the surface of the water in the well must not exceed 34 feet, the highest column of water which the pressure of the atmosphere will sustain, since otherwise the water in the pipe would not reach to the height of the valve V. In practice this distance should not exceed 28 feet. This is due to the fact that there is a little air left between the bottom of the piston and the bottom of the cylinder, a little air leaks through the valves which are not perfectly air-tight, and a pressure is needed to raise the valve against its weight, which, of course, acts downwards. There are many varieties of the suction pump, differing principally in the valves and piston, but the principle is the same in all.

1079. The Lifting Pump.—A section of a **lifting pump** is shown in Fig. 206. These pumps are used when water is to be raised to greater heights than can be done with the ordinary suction pump. As will be perceived, it is essentially the same as the pump previously described, except that the spout is fitted with a cock and has a pipe attached to it, leading to the point of discharge. If it is desired to discharge the water at the spout, the cock may be opened; otherwise, the cock is closed, and the water is lifted by the piston up through the pipe P' to the point of discharge, the valve c preventing it from falling back into the pump, and the valve V

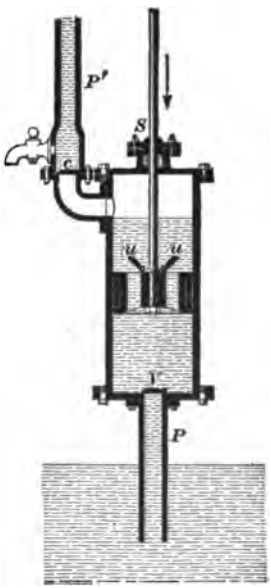

FIG. 206.

preventing the water in the pump from falling back into the well. It is not necessary that there should be a second pipe P', as shown in the figure, for the pipe P may be continued straight upwards, as shown in Fig. 207.

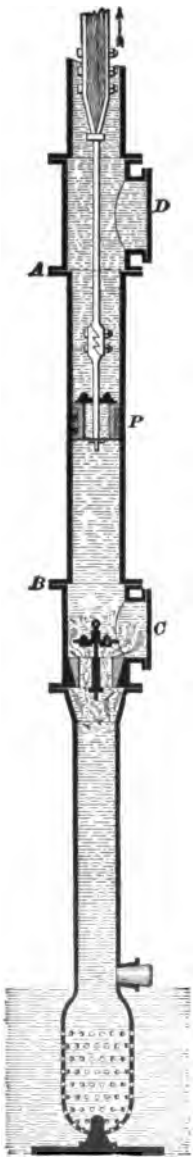

FIG. 207.

1080. In the figure is shown a section of a lifting pump for raising water from great depths, as from the bottom of mines to the surface. This pump consists of a series of pipes connected together, of which the lower end only is shown in the cut. That part of the pipe included between the letters A and B forms the pump cylinder in which the piston P works. That part of the pipe above the highest point of the piston travel, through which the water is discharged, is called the **delivery pipe,** and the part below the lowest point of the piston travel is called the **suction pipe.** The lower end of the suction pipe is expanded, and has a number of small holes in it, to keep out the solid matter. C is a plate covering an opening, and which may be removed to allow the suction valve to be repaired. D is a plate covering a similar opening through which the piston and piston valves may be repaired. The piston rod, or rather the piston stem, is made of wrought iron, inserted with wood, and connected with the piston. The only limit to the height to which a pump of this kind can raise water is the strength of the piston rod. Lifting pumps of this kind are used to raise water from great depths to the earth's surface; hence, a very long piston rod is necessary. In the lifting pump shown in Fig. 206 the water is raised from a point a few feet below the

earth's surface to a point considerably higher. This requires the piston rod to move through a stuffing-box, as shown at S, and also necessitates the rod being round, in order that the water may not leak out.

1081. Force Pumps.—The **force pump** differs from the lifting pump in several important particulars, but chiefly in the fact that the piston is solid; that is, it has no valves. A section of a *suction and force pump* is shown in Fig. 208. The water is drawn up the suction pipe as before, when the piston rises; but when the piston reverses, the pressure on the water caused by the descent of the piston

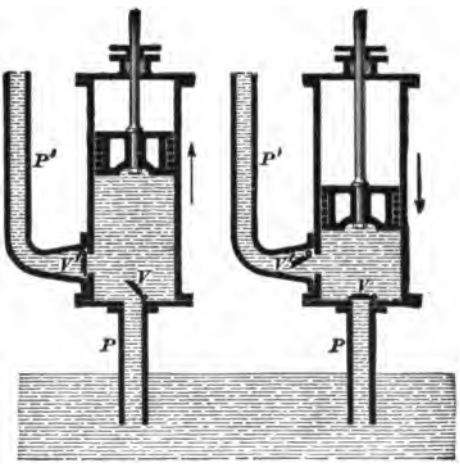

FIG. 208.

opens the valve V' and *forces* the water up the delivery pipe P'. When the piston again begins its upward movement, the valve V' is closed by the pressure of the water above it, and the valve V is opened by the pressure of the atmosphere on the water below it, as in the previous cases. For an arrangement of this kind, it is not necessary to have a stuffing-box. The water may be forced to almost any desired height. The force pump differs again from the lifting pump in respect to its piston rod, which should not be longer than is absolutely necessary in order to prevent it from *buckling*,

while in the lifting pump the length of the piston rod is a matter of indifference.

1082. Plunger Pumps.—When force pumps are used to convey water to great heights, the pressure of the water in the cylinder becomes so great that it becomes extremely difficult to keep the water from leaking past the piston, and the constant repairing of the piston packing becomes a nuisance. To obviate this difficulty the piston is made very long, as shown in Fig. 209, and is then called a **plunger.** The suction valve in this case consists of two clack valves inclined to each other and resting upon a square pin *A*; they are prevented from flying back too far during the up stroke of the plunger by the two uprights *I*, *I*. During the down stroke of the plunger the valves at *A* are closed and the delivery valve at *B* is open. A little air is always carried into the cylinder of a pump with the entering of the water. In force pumps this fact becomes a serious consideration, since, after repeated strokes, the air accumulates, and during the down stroke of the plunger it is compressed. After a time it would become sufficiently compressed to entirely prevent the water from entering through the suction valve, the pressure on the top of the valve being greater than that of the atmosphere below. In the pump shown in the figure, the plunger is a trifle smaller than the cylinder, and the air collects around the plunger below the stuffing-box. To remove this air a narrow passage *C*, shown by the dotted lines, that can be closed at its upper end by the cock *D*, connects the interior of the pump with the atmosphere when the cock is open. It is evident that this

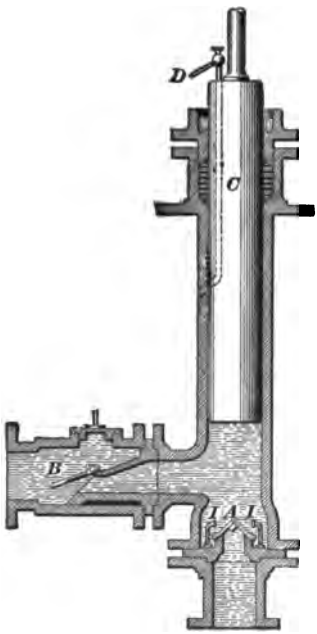

FIG. 209.

cock must not be opened, except during the down stroke of the plunger; for, if it were open during the up stroke, the pressure below the plunger being less than the pressure of the atmosphere above, the air would rush in instead of being expelled.

1083. Double-Acting Pumps.—In the pumps previously described, the discharge was intermittent; that is, the pump could only discharge when the piston was moving in one direction. In some cases it is necessary that there should be a continuous discharge; in all cases it takes more

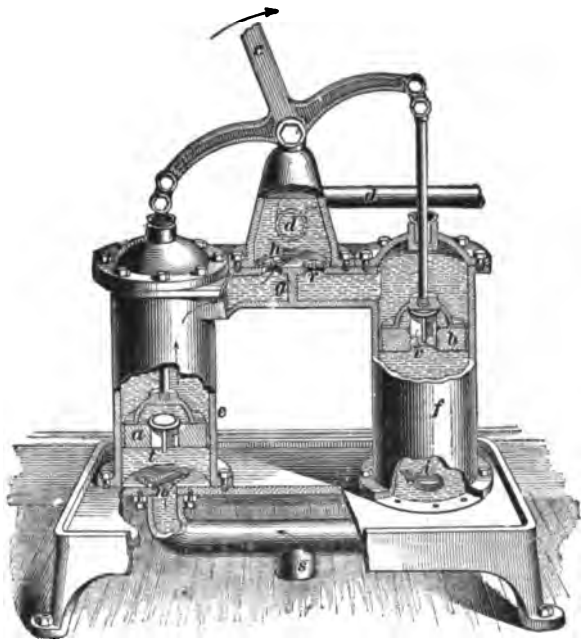

FIG. 210.

power to run the pump with an intermittent discharge, as a little consideration will show. If the height that the water is to be raised is considerable, its weight will be very great, and the entire mass must be put in motion during one stroke of the piston.

In order to obtain the advantage of a more continuous discharge, double-acting pumps are used. Fig. 210 shows a

part sectional view of such a pump. Two pistons *a* and *b* are used, which are operated by one handle *c* in the manner shown. The pump has one suction pipe *s* and one discharge pipe *d*. The cylinders *e* and *f* are separated by a diaphragm *g*, so that they cannot communicate with each other above the pistons. In the figure, the handle *c* is moving to the right, the piston *a* upwards, and the piston *b* downwards. As the piston *a* moves upwards, it lifts the water above it and causes it to flow through the delivery valve *h* into the discharge pipe *d*. This upward movement of the piston creates a partial vacuum below it in the cylinder *e*, and causes the water to rush up the suction pipe *s* into the cylinder, as shown by the arrows. In the cylinder *f*, the downward movement of the piston *b* raises the piston valve *v*, and the weight of the water on the suction valve *i* keeps it closed. When the handle *c* has completed its movement to the right and begins its return, all of the valves on the right-hand side open except *v*, and those on the left-hand side close except *i*; water is then discharged into the delivery pipe by the cylinder *f*, and only at the instant of reversal is the flow into the delivery pipe *d* stopped.

1084. Air Chambers.—In order to obtain a continuous flow of water in the delivery pipe, with as nearly a uniform velocity as possible, an **air chamber** is usually placed on the delivery pipe of force pumps as near to the pump cylinder as the construction of the machine will allow. The air chambers are usually pear-shaped, with the small end connected to the pipe. They are filled with air which the water compresses during the discharge. During the suction, the air thus compressed expands and acts as an accelerating force upon the moving column of water, a force which diminishes with the expansion of the air, and helps to keep the velocity of the moving column more nearly uniform. An air chamber is sometimes placed upon the suction pipe. These air chambers not only tend to promote a uniform discharge, but they also equalize the stresses upon the pump, and prevent shocks due to the incompressibility of water.

They serve the same purpose in pumps that a fly-wheel does to the steam engine. Unless the pump moves very slowly, it is absolutely necessary to have an air chamber on the delivery pipe.

1085. Steam Pumps.—Steam pumps are force pumps operated by steam acting upon the piston of a steam engine, directly connected to the pump, and in many cases cast with the pump. A section of a double-acting steam pump showing the steam and water cylinders, with other details, is illustrated in Fig. 211. Here *G* is a steam piston,

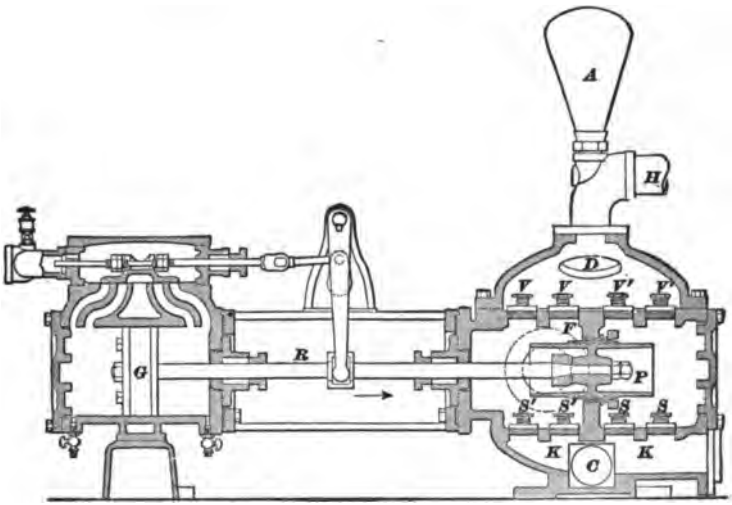

FIG. 211.

and *R* the piston rod, which is secured at its other end to the plunger *P*. *F* is a partition cast with the cylinder, which prevents the water in the left-hand half from communicating with that in the right-hand half of the cylinder. Suppose the piston to be moving in the direction of the arrow. The volume of the left-hand half of the pump cylinder will be increased by an amount equal to the area of the circumference of the plunger, multiplied by the length of the stroke, and the volume of the right-hand half of the cylinder will be diminished by a like amount. In consequence

of this, a volume of water in the right-hand half of the cylinder equal to the volume displaced by the plunger in its forward movement will be forced through the valves V', V' into the air chamber A, through the orifice D, and then discharged through the delivery pipe H. By reason of the partial vacuum in the left-hand half of the pump cylinder, owing to this movement of the plunger, the water will be drawn from the reservoir through the suction pipe C into the chamber K, K, lifting the valves S', S', and filling the space displaced by the plunger. During the return stroke the water will be drawn through the valves S, S into the right-hand half of the pump cylinder, and discharged through the valves V, V in the left-hand half. Each one of the four suction and four discharge valves is kept to its seat, when not working, by light springs, as shown.

There are many varieties and makes of steam pumps, the majority of which are double-acting. In many cases two steam pumps are placed side by side, having a common delivery pipe. This arrangement is called a **duplex pump.** It is usual to so set the steam pistons of duplex pumps that when one is completing the stroke the other is in the middle of its stroke. A double-acting duplex pump made to run in this manner, and having an air chamber of sufficient size, will deliver water with nearly a uniform velocity.

In mine pumps for forcing water to great heights, the plungers are made solid, and in most cases extended through the pump cylinder. In many steam pumps pistons are used instead of plungers, but when very heavy duty is required plungers are preferred.

1086. Centrifugal Pumps.—Next to the direct-acting steam pump, the **centrifugal pump** is the most valuable instrument for raising water to great heights that has yet been described. As the name denotes, the effects produced by centrifugal force are made use of. Fig. 212 represents one with half of the casing removed. The hub S is hollow, and is connected directly to the suction pipe. The curved arms a, called **vanes** or **wings,** are revolved with a high velocity in the direction of the arrow, and the

air enclosed between them is driven out through the discharge passage and delivery pipe *D D*. This creates a partial vacuum in the casing and suction pipe, and causes the water to flow in through *S*. This water is also made to revolve with the vanes, and, of course, with the same velocity. The centrifugal force of the revolving water causes it to fly outwards towards the end of the vanes, and becomes greater the farther away it gets from the center. This causes it to leave the vanes, and finally to leave the pump by means of the discharge passage and delivery pipe *D D*. The height to which the water can be forced depends upon the velocity of the revolving vanes. In the construction of the centrifugal pump, particular care is required in giving the correct form to the vanes; the efficiency of the machine depends greatly upon this point being attended to. What is required is to raise the water, and the energy used to drive the pump should be devoted as far as possible to this one purpose. The water when it is raised should be delivered with as little velocity as possible, for any velocity which the water then possesses, has been produced at the expense of the energy used to drive the pump. The form of the vanes is such that the water is delivered at the desired height with the least expenditure of energy.

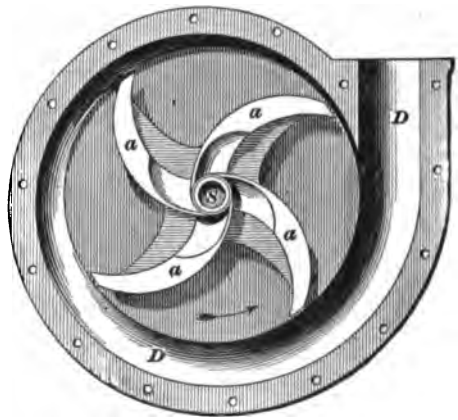

FIG. 212.

The number of vanes depends upon the size and capacity of the pump. It will be noticed that, in the pump shown in the figure, the vanes have sharp edges near the hub. The object of this is to provide for a free ingress of the water, and also to cut any foreign substance that may enter the pump and prevent it from working properly.

Almost any liquid can be raised with these pumps, but when used for pumping chemicals, the casing and vanes are made of materials that the chemicals will not affect.

1087. The Hydraulic Ram.—The construction of a hydraulic ram is shown in Fig. 213. This machine is used for raising water from a point below the level of the water in a spring or reservoir to a point considerably higher, with no power other than that afforded by the inertia of a moving column of water. In the figure, *a* is a pipe called the *drive pipe*, connecting the ram with the reservoir; the valve *b* slides freely in a guide, and is provided with lock-nuts to regulate the distance that the valve can fall below its seat. When

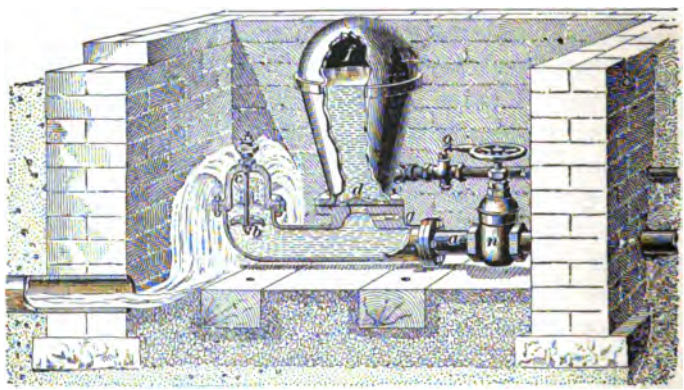

FIG. 213.

the water is first turned on by opening the valve *n*, the valve *b* is already opened, and the water flows out through *c*, as shown. As the discharge continues, the velocity of the water in the drive pipe will increase until the upward pressure against the valve *b* is sufficient to force the valve to its seat. The actual closing of the valve takes place very suddenly, and the momentum of the column of water, which was moving with an increasing velocity through the drive pipe *a*, will very rapidly force some water through the valve *d* into the air-chamber *f*. Immediately after this, a rebound takes place, and for a short interval of time the water flows

back up the drive pipe *a* and tends to form a vacuum under the air chamber valve *d*; this opens the snifter valve *g* and admits a little air, which accumulates under the valve *d* and is forced into the air chamber with the next shock. This air keeps the air chamber constantly charged; otherwise, the water, being under a greater pressure in the air chamber than it is in the reservoir, would soon absorb the air in the chamber and the ram would cease to work until the chamber was recharged with air. The rebound also takes the pressure off the under side of valve *b* and causes it to drop, and the above-described operations are repeated. The delivery pipe is shown at *e*; a steady flow of water is maintained through it by the pressure of the air in the chamber *f*; this air also acts as a cushion when valve *b* suddenly closes, and prevents undue shock to the parts of the ram.

The height to which water can be raised by the hydraulic ram depends upon the weight of the valve *b* and the velocity of the water in *a*.

1088. Power Necessary to Work a Pump:

Rule I.—*In all pumps, whether lifting, force, steam, single- or double-acting, or centrifugal, the number of foot-pounds of power needed to work the pump is equal to the weight of the water in pounds, multiplied by the vertical distance in feet between the level of the water in the well, or source, and the point of discharge, plus the work necessary to overcome the friction and other resistances.*

Rule II.—*The work done in one stroke of a pump is equal to the weight of a volume of water equal to the volume displaced by the piston during the stroke, multiplied by the total vertical distance in feet through which the water is to be raised, plus the work necessary to overcome the resistances.*

A little consideration will make Rule II evident. Suppose that the height of the suction is 25 feet; that the vertical distance between the suction valve and the point of discharge is 100 feet; that the stroke of the piston is 15 inches, and that its diameter is 10 inches. Let the diameters of the suction pipe and delivery pipe be 4 inches each. The

volume displaced by the pump piston or plunger in one stroke equals $\frac{10^2 \times .7854 \times 15}{1,728} = .68177$ cubic foot. The weight of an equal volume of water $= .68177 \times 62.5 = 42.61063$ pounds. Now, in order to discharge this water, *all* of the water in the suction and delivery pipes had to be moved through a certain distance in feet equal to .68177 divided by the area of the pipes in square feet.

Four inches $= \frac{1}{3}$ of a foot. $(\frac{1}{3})^2 \times .7854 = \frac{.7854}{9} = .0872\frac{2}{3}$ square foot. $.68177 \div .0872\frac{2}{3} = 7.8125$ feet.

The weight of the water in the delivery pipe is $(\frac{1}{3})^2 \times .7854 \times 100 \times 62.5 = 545.42$ pounds.

The weight of the water in the suction pipe is $(\frac{1}{3})^2 \times .7854 \times 25 \times 62.5 = 136.35$ pounds.

$545.42 + 136.35 = 681.77$ pounds = the total weight of water moved in one stroke. The distance that it is moved in one stroke is 7.8125 feet. Hence, the number of foot-pounds necessary for one stroke is $681.77 \times 7.8125 = 5,326.33$ foot-pounds. Had this result been obtained by Rule II, the process would have been as follows: The weight of the water displaced by the piston in one stroke was found to be 42.61063 pounds. $42.61 \times 125 = 5,326.33$ pounds, which is exactly the same as the result obtained by the previous method, and is a great deal shorter.

EXAMPLE.—What must be the necessary horsepower of a double-acting steam pump if the vertical distance between the point of discharge and the point of suction is 96 feet? The diameter of the pump cylinder is 8 inches, the stroke is 10 inches, and the number of strokes per minute is 120. Allow 25% for friction, etc.

SOLUTION.—Since the pump is double-acting, it raises a quantity of water equal to the volume displaced by the plunger at every stroke. The weight of the volume of water displaced in one stroke $= (\frac{8}{12})^2 \times .7854 \times \frac{10}{12} \times 62.5 = 18.18$ pounds, nearly.

$18.18 \times 96 \times 120 = 209,433.6$ foot-pounds per minute.

Since 25% is to be allowed for friction, the actual number of foot-pounds per minute $= 209,433.6 \div .75 = 279,244.8$ foot-pounds per minute.

One horsepower = 33,000 foot-pounds per minute; hence, $\frac{279,244.8}{33,000}$ = 8.462 H. P., nearly. Ans.

ELEMENTARY GRAPHICAL STATICS.

PROPERTIES OF FORCE.

1089. Before beginning the subject of Graphical Statics, it will be well to restate some of the fundamental principles of mechanics, and explain them somewhat more at length than has been done in former articles.

Force, so far as we know, always relates to bodies, and may be defined as the action of a body upon another, causing, or tending to cause, motion in the latter.

1090. If two forces act upon a body, tending to produce the same amount of motion, but in opposite directions, it is evident that there can be motion in neither direction. The forces are then said to be **balanced** or **in equilibrium.**

This condition is not limited to two forces; three or more forces may so act upon a body as to be balanced among themselves, as when a body hangs by two or more ropes; here the weight of the body, which is one of the forces, balances the pulls of the ropes, which are the other forces.

1091. When, on the contrary, a force acting upon a body is not resisted by an equal and opposite force, motion takes place, and the force is said to be **unbalanced.**

1092. The general laws of force and its effects are the subject of the science of **mechanics.**

Statics is that branch of mechanics which treats of balanced forces—that is, of the conditions of equilibrium.

1093. In order to determine the **effect** of a force, it is necessary to consider (1) its *point of application;* (2) its *direction*, and (3) its *magnitude.*

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1094. The **point of application** of a force is the point at which the force is applied and upon which its effect is exerted. The point of application of a force is usually known.

1095. The **direction** of a force is the direction in which it tends to move its point of application; the line along which it tends to move the point of application is called the **line of action** of the force.

The motion produced by an unbalanced force will always be in a *straight line*, and the line of action of a force may always be represented by a straight line. For convenience, *any point in the line of action* of a force may be taken as its *point of application.*

If several forces have a common point of application, or their lines of action meet at a common point, they are called **concurring forces.** If their lines of action do not meet at a common point, they are called **non-concurring forces.**

It is evident that the *line of action* of a force does not fully define or fix its *direction*, for the force might act towards either end of the line; the direction in which a force acts along its line of action is called the **sense** of the force.

The direction of a *force* must not be confused with its *line of action.* The line of action *must pass through the point of application*; while the direction may be represented by *any line parallel to the line of action.*

The *direction* of a force includes its *line of action* and its *sense.*

The lines of action of all forces considered here will be understood to lie in the *same plane.*

1096. The **magnitude** of a force is measured by comparison with some *known force* or with some assumed *unit of force.* Unless otherwise specially stated, the unit of magnitude herein assumed for forces will always be *one pound.*

1097. Resultants and Components.—The **resultant** of any number of forces is that single force which

will produce the same effect as that produced by the combined action of those forces, and, on the contrary, if several forces acting together can produce the same effect as that produced by a single force, they are called the **components** of that force.

The process (by whatever method) of finding the resultant of several forces is called **the composition of forces.**

The process of resolving a force into its components is called **the resolution of forces.**

In any investigation in statics, *the components may be replaced by the resultant*, or *the resultant by the components.*

1098. *Problems in statics are solved by assuming the condition of equilibrium.*

If several forces are in equilibrium and the magnitudes and directions of all but a certain number of them are known, the magnitudes and directions of the unknown forces can, in some cases, be ascertained by determining the relations between the known forces and those which are necessary to balance them.

The operation of finding the values of the unknown forces in a combination of forces which are in equilibrium is similar to the solution of an algebraic equation. In the latter case, the condition of equality is assumed between the members of the equation; in the former case, the condition of equilibrium is assumed between the forces; in either case, the values of the unknown quantities are ascertained by means of their relations to the known quantities.

THE GRAPHICAL REPRESENTATION OF FORCES.

1099. In the geometrical solution of mechanical problems every force is represented by a straight line that either coincides with, or is parallel to, the line of action of the force. The magnitude of the force is represented by the length of the line, and its sense by an arrow-head pointing in the direction in which the force tends to move its point of application.

In Fig. 214, the line $A\ B$ represents a force of 300 pounds to a scale of 200 pounds to the inch; that is, every inch of length represents 200 pounds of force. The length of $A\ B$ is, therefore, $\frac{300}{200} = 1\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The arrow-head indicates that the force acts from A towards B.

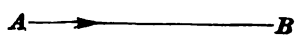


FIG. 214.

A decimally divided scale, i. e., a scale of 10, 20, 30, 40, or 50 divisions to the inch, is the most convenient to use in representing forces. As the larger the scale used, the more accurate are the results, it is always best to use as large a scale as may be expedient.

If the position of the line represents the line of action of the force, and the point of application is at A, then the force tends to *pull* the point of application A towards B; but, if B is the point of application, then the force tends to *push* it away from A. If the force be applied at any point along its line of action (between A and B, or in line beyond A or beyond B), its effect will be the same; namely, a tendency to move the point of application along the same straight line, $A\ B$, or $A\ B$ produced, in the direction indicated by the arrow-head. (See Art. **1095.**) Usually, the point of application of a force is considered to be at one end of the line representing the force.

Hereafter, *the arrow-head, indicating the sense of a force, will be placed between that end which represents the point of application, and the center of the line.* This practice will here be conventionally followed; thus, in Fig. 214, the point of application of the force is understood to be at A.

NOTE.—When the direction of a force is given by its angle, it will be understood according to the note in Art. **879.**

1100. It is thus seen that forces may be correctly represented by lines; this is called the **graphical method** of representing forces. The method is made very valuable by the additional fact that *the relations necessary to the condition of equilibrium between the forces so represented, can be determined by applying the principles of geometry to the lines so used.*

A combination of forces may thus be analyzed; such

geometrical or graphical analysis of balanced forces is called **graphical statics.**

Graphical Statics may, therefore, be defined as a method of solving statical problems by means of diagrams in which the lengths and directions of the lines represent, respectively, the magnitudes and directions of the forces treated.

CONCURRING FORCES.

1101. The Force Polygon.

Referring to Fig. 117, Art. **881**, it will be remembered that $g\,a$ represents the resultant of $g\,f$, $f\,e$, $c\,d$, etc., which means that the forces $g\,f$, $f\,e$, etc., may be replaced by the single force $g\,a$. Now, if we apply a force equal to $g\,a$, but in opposite direction, the two will balance each other; or, what is the same thing, the new force will balance the combination of forces $g\,f$, $f\,e$, etc. This is indicated by simply changing the arrow-head on line $a\,g$. Hence the following principles:

(*a*) *If any number of forces are in equilibrium, lines representing the forces in magnitude and direction, drawn end to end consecutively, must form a closed polygon.*

Conversely: (*b*) *If any number of concurring forces can be represented by the sides of a closed polygon, in such a manner that the directions of the arrow-heads will follow each other around the polygon, the forces are in equilibrium.*

The special condition of equilibrium in drawing the force polygon is that it must *close*. The arrow-heads on the lines forming the sides of the polygon must be so placed that a pencil passed successively over each line in the direction indicated by the arrow-head will move continuously around the polygon to the place of beginning; *the arrow-heads on any two adjacent sides must not point towards the point of intersection of the two sides.*

If the lines of action of all the forces are parallel, the closed polygon will be a straight line; in this case, the pencil would travel from one end of the line to the opposite end and back again to the starting point.

1102. Lines representing forces in equilibrium, if drawn end to end, will always form a closed polygon, whether the forces do or do not meet at a common point; but forces which are represented by the sides of a closed polygon are not necessarily in equilibrium unless they are *concurring* forces. If the forces so represented are non-concurring forces, their lines of action may be so arranged that their resultants will form what is known as a *couple*.

ILLUSTRATION.—In Fig. 215, the lines $A\ O = 30$ lb., $O\ B = 80$ lb., $C\ O = 20$ lb., $D\ O = 60$ lb., $O\ E = 75$ lb., and

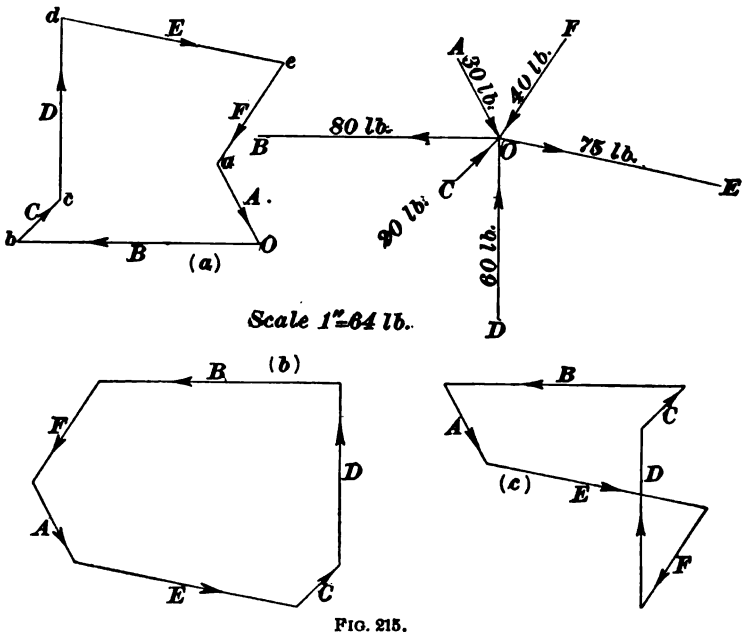


FIG. 215.

$F\ O = 40$ lb., represent forces which meet at the common point O. The lengths of the lines represent the magnitudes of the forces to a scale of 64 lb. = 1 in.; the directions and positions of the lines represent the lines of action of the forces; one end of each line is at the point of application of the force which it represents, while an arrow-head marked upon it indicates the sense of the force. All the forces are

exerted in directions towards the common point of application O, except those represented by the lines $O\ B$ and $O\ E$, which act in directions away from O.

In Fig. 215 (a), the line $a\ O = 30$ lb. $= \frac{30}{64} = \frac{15}{32}$ in., is drawn equal and parallel to $A\ O$; as indicated by the arrow-head, it was drawn from a towards O, the movement being parallel to the *sense* of the force $A\ O$; in other words, the line $a\ O$ is drawn parallel, not simply to the line $A\ O$, but to the direction (i. e., line of action and sense) of the force represented by it; likewise, from O, the line $O\ b = 80$ lb. $= \frac{80}{64} = 1\frac{1}{4}$ in., is drawn equal and parallel to $O\ B$; from b the line $b\ c = 20$ lb. $= \frac{20}{64} = \frac{5}{16}$ in., is drawn equal and parallel to $C\ O$; from c the line $c\ d = 60$ lb. $= \frac{60}{64} = \frac{15}{16}$ in., is drawn equal and parallel to $D\ O$; from d the line $d\ e = 75$ lb. $= \frac{75}{64} = 1\frac{11}{64}$ in., is drawn equal and parallel to $O\ E$ and from e, the line $e\ a = 40$ lb. $= \frac{40}{64} = \frac{5}{8}$ in., is drawn equal and parallel to $F\ O$. The terminus of the last line falls just at the starting point a, forming a closed figure; therefore, these forces, which meet at a common point, must be in equilibrium. A pencil passed along each line successively in the direction indicated by the arrow-heads will return to the starting point.

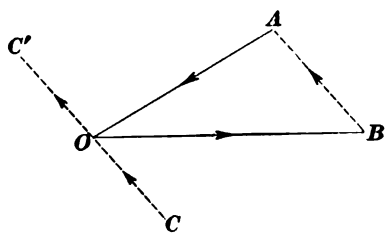
In Fig. 215, (a) is a **force polygon** for the forces represented in Fig. 215. In drawing this force polygon, the forces were taken in order passing around the point O, in a direction opposite to the movement of the hands of a clock; practically the same results, i. e., the same relations between the lines, would have been obtained had the forces been taken in any order. In (b) and (c) the forces were not taken in regular order. *For the purposes of graphical statics, it makes no difference in what order the lines are drawn;* the relative lengths of the lines necessary to form a closed polygon are the same in any case. It is usually the most convenient, however, to take the forces in order around the point of application. It is not necessary to use the same scale to represent the forces in the force polygon, as (a) that was used to represent them in the original figure, as Fig. 215.

1103. In the force polygon, place the arrow-head in each case a little to one side of the center of the line and nearer to the end of the line corresponding to the point of application. (See Art. **1099.**) If the sense of the force is *towards* the point of application, the arrow-head should point towards the *shorter* portion of the line, but if the sense of the force is *away* from the point of application, the arrow-head should point towards the *longer* portion of the line. The advantage of this practice will be shown further along.

1104. *The point of application of the forces can not be represented in the force polygon by a single point.* In Fig. 215 each line not only represents the magnitude and direction of a force, but it also definitely locates its *line of action.* The point of application of each force must be some point in its line of action; in this case it is the common point O. But in the force polygon (a), (b), or (c), each line is simply drawn *parallel* to the direction of the corresponding force; it does not in any manner indicate either its line of action or its point of application; it represents the force in magnitude and direction only.

1105. The Triangle of Forces and the Equilibrant.

In Fig. 216, the lines $A\ O$ and $O\ B$ represent two forces whose lines of action meet at an angle of 30 degrees at the common point O. The force $A\ O =$ 35 pounds and $O\ B = 45$ pounds. The scale used is 32 pounds to the inch. As the lines $A\ O$ and $O\ B$ can not be so drawn as to form a closed figure, the forces can not be in equilibrium. (Arts. **1101** and **1102.**) But it is evident that a line drawn from B to A, as indicated by the dotted line $B\ A$, would fulfil this condition; for a pencil could then start at A, and, passing along each line in the



Scale 1"=32 lb.

FIG. 216.

direction indicated by the arrow-heads, travel entirely around the figure and return to the starting point. The force $B\ A$ (meaning the force represented in magnitude and direction by the line $B\ A$) is, therefore, in equilibrium with the forces $A\ O$ and $O\ B$; measured to the scale used it equals 23 pounds. The position, with reference to the point of application, of the force represented by $B\ A$ may be represented by either $C\ O$ or $O\ C'$, each equal to $B\ A$.

As explained in Art. **1101,** a force equal to $B\ A$, but acting in the opposite direction (with the arrow-head reversed), would be the resultant of the two forces $A\ O$ and $O\ B$. In general, *if the direction of the arrow-head on any line of an equilibrium polygon be reversed, the force represented by that line will be the resultant of all the forces represented by the other lines of the polygon.*

1106. The complete triangle $A\ O\ B\ A$, Fig. 216, is called a **triangle of forces;** $B\ A$ is called the **closing line.**

A force which is in equilibrium with any combination of forces is called the **equilibrant** of the original forces; it must be equal in magnitude, but opposite in direction to their resultant, and is sometimes called the **anti-resultant.**

The equilibrant is the force which, when added to any combination of forces not in equilibrium, will produce equilibrium between all the forces.

In the usual language, a force or system of forces is said to be *equilibrated*, or *balanced*, by the equilibrant.

1107. From the foregoing may be deduced the following principles:

(*a*) *If two concurring forces are respectively represented in magnitude and direction by lines drawn end to end, a third line drawn from the unconnected end or terminus of the second to the beginning of the first line, completing the triangle, will represent in magnitude and direction the equilibrant of the original forces.*

(*b*) *If the third line is drawn in the opposite direction, from the beginning of the first line to the terminus of the second, it will represent the resultant of the two original forces.*

(*c*) *If three forces are in equilibrium, each force will be the equilibrant of the other two; each force will be equal in magnitude, but opposite in direction, to the resultant of the other two.*

(*d*) *The line representing the equilibrant of two forces may be changed to represent their resultant, or the line representing their resultant may be changed to represent their equilibrant by simply reversing the direction, of the arrowhead.*

EXAMPLE.—Two forces, $A\ O = 100$ pounds, and $O\ B = 122$ pounds (Fig. 216), act upon a body at the common point O, their lines of action meeting at an angle of 35 degrees; the sense of $A\ O$ is towards O, and the sense of $O\ B$ is away from O. What is the magnitude of their equilibrant?

SOLUTION.—Draw two lines of indefinite length making an angle of 35 degrees with each other. With any convenient scale, say 16 pounds to the inch, lay off $A\ O$ upon one line equal to 100 pounds $= \frac{100}{16} = 6\frac{1}{4}$ inches, and upon the other line lay off $O\ B$ equal to 122 pounds $= \frac{122}{16} = 7\frac{5}{8}$ inches. The arrows marked upon the lines, indicating the sense of each force with reference to the point O, must *follow* each other; one arrow must point towards, and one arrow must point away from, the intersection of the lines. The line connecting the extremities of the two lines, i. e., the closing line of the triangle, will to the same scale represent the magnitude of the equilibrant. The closing line $B\ A$ is found to equal $4\frac{3}{8}$ inches $= 4\frac{3}{8} \times 16 = 70$ pounds. The line of action of the equilibrant must be parallel to the closing line; an arrow marked upon the closing line following the direction of the other two arrows around the triangle will indicate the sense of the equilibrant.

1108. The Equilibrant and Resultant of any Number of Forces.

The statement that the line necessary to close the figure represents the equilibrant, while a line in the same position, but drawn in the opposite direction, represents the resultant of the forces represented by the original lines, is also true of lines representing any number of forces.

ILLUSTRATION.—In Fig. 217, let each side of the triangle $A\ O\ B$ represent the same force as that represented by the corresponding lines in Fig. 216.

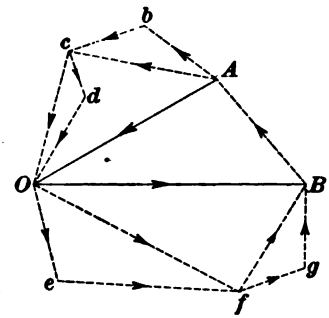


FIG. 217.

In Art. **1107,** these forces were shown to be in equilibrium. For instance, it was found that a line drawn from B to A represented a force in equilibrium with the forces $A\ O$ and $O\ B$, and that a line in the same position, but drawn from A to B, represented the resultant of those forces. But the lines $A\ O$ and $O\ B$ may each represent the resultant of any number of forces. For the lines $A\ c$ and $c\ O$, for instance, may represent two forces, of which the force $A\ O$ is the resultant. But $A\ c$ may represent the resultant of the forces $A\ b$ and $b\ c$, while $c\ O$ may represent the resultant of the forces $c\ d$ and $d\ O$. Again, $A\ b$, $b\ c$, $c\ d$, and $d\ O$ may each represent the resultant of other forces, each of which may be in turn the resultant of still other forces; and as this process may be extended indefinitely, it is plain that $A\ O$ may represent the resultant of any number of forces. The same is true of $O\ B$; and, if instead of two original forces, as represented by the lines $A\ O$ and $O\ B$, there were eight original forces, as represented by the lines $A\ b$, $b\ c$, $c\ d$, $d\ O$, Oe, $e\ f$, $f\ g$, and $g\ B$, or any number of forces represented by lines starting at A and terminating at B, the closing line $B\ A$ would still represent a force in equilibrium with, i. e., the equilibrant of, the entire system of original forces, and a line from A to B would represent their resultant.

Hence the following principles:

(**a**) *If any number of concurring forces not in equilibrium are respectively represented in magnitude and direction by lines drawn successively end to end, the equilibrant of the original forces may be represented by a line drawn from the terminus to the starting point of the original lines, closing the polygon.*

(*b*) *A line drawn directly from the starting point to the terminus of the original lines will represent the resultant of the original forces.*

(*c*) *If any number of concurring forces are in equilibrium, each force will be the equilibrant of all the others; each force will be equal in magnitude, but opposite in direction, to the resultant of all the others.*

These principles could have been deduced directly from the principles stated in Art. **1101,** (*a*) and (*b*). For, if lines representing a combination of forces which are in equilibrium form a closed polygon, then, when the forces are not in equilibrium so that the lines representing them will not close, it is evident that the closing line, drawn from the terminus to the starting point of the original lines, will fulfil the conditions necessary for equilibrium and will represent a force in equilibrium with the original forces.

If the original forces are already in equilibrium, the force polygon will close, showing that they can have neither equilibrant nor resultant.

1109. Values of Forces Which May Be Determined by the Force Polygon.

The force polygon may be called a **geometrical equation,** for it expresses the relations between the values of the quantities (forces) involved that are necessary to a condition of equilibrium. If the equation contains an unknown quantity, its value may be found by solving the equation, i. e., by drawing the polygon.

It should be borne in mind that each line in the force polygon represents two distinct values—namely, the *magnitude* and the *line of action* of a force.

The values for each force necessary to satisfy the condition of equilibrium between the forces represented may be determined by drawing the force polygon:

(*a*) When both the magnitude and the line of action of one force are unknown.

(*b*) When the magnitude of one force and the line of action of another force are unknown, the line of action of the former and the magnitude of the latter being known.

(*c*) When the lines of action of two forces are unknown, their magnitudes being known.

(*d*) When the magnitudes of two forces are unknown, their lines of action being known.

NOTE.—The arrow-head marked upon each line to indicate the sense of the force along its line of action is to some extent independent of the above conditions; the sense of a force possessing *any* of the unknown conditions as above may always be determined in connection with the determination of the unknown condition.

1110. *Case* (*a*)—How to find the *magnitude*, *line of action*, and *sense* of the one unknown force necessary to fulfil the condition of equilibrium has been explained quite fully in Arts. **1105** to **1108.** The operation is substantially the same in all cases, and will require no further explanation.

1111. *Case* (*b*)—EXAMPLE.—In Fig. 218, the lines of action of the forces $A\,O$, $B\,O$, $C\,O$, and $D\,O$ meet at the common point O; the magnitude and direction of each are known. $A\,O = 40$ pounds,

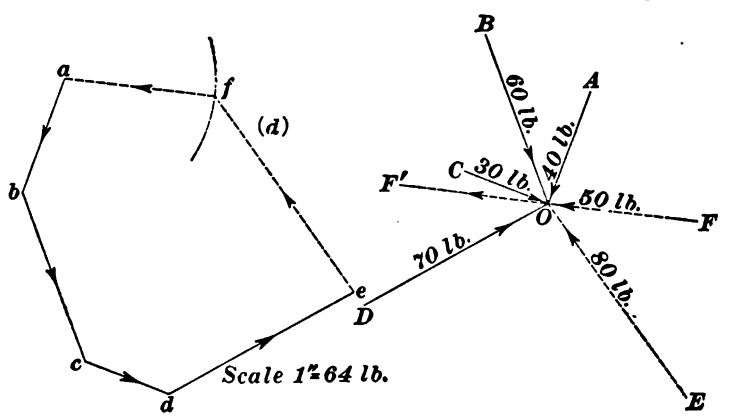


FIG. 218.

$B\,O = 60$ pounds, $C\,O = 30$ pounds, and $D\,O = 70$ pounds, and the direction of each force is indicated in the figure. A force $E\,O$ whose *magnitude* is unknown acts along the line of action $E\,O$. A force of 50 pounds designated as $F\,O$ also acts upon the point O, but its *line of*

action is not known. The sense of neither force is known. It is desired to find the magnitude of the force EO and the direction of the force FO.

SOLUTION.—Draw end to end consecutively, and to any scale, the lines representing the known forces AO, BO, CO, and DO, as ab, bc, cd, and de in (d), Fig. 218. Through e, draw a line of indefinite length, as ef, having the direction of the force EO; from the point a as a center, with a radius whose length represents 50 pounds (the magnitude of the force FO whose direction is unknown), strike the arc of a circle intersecting the indefinite line ef at f; draw the line fa, and mark upon it an arrow indicating a direction corresponding to the general directions of the other lines around the polygon. The direction of the force FO is thus found to be the direction of the line fa; and the magnitude of the force EO is represented by the length of the line between e and f; $EO = 80$ pounds. The same scale must be used for all the lines of the force polygon.

1112. *Case* (c)—EXAMPLE.—In Fig. 219, the forces AO, BO, CO, and DO, which meet at the common point O, have the same values as the corresponding forces represented in Fig. 218; namely,

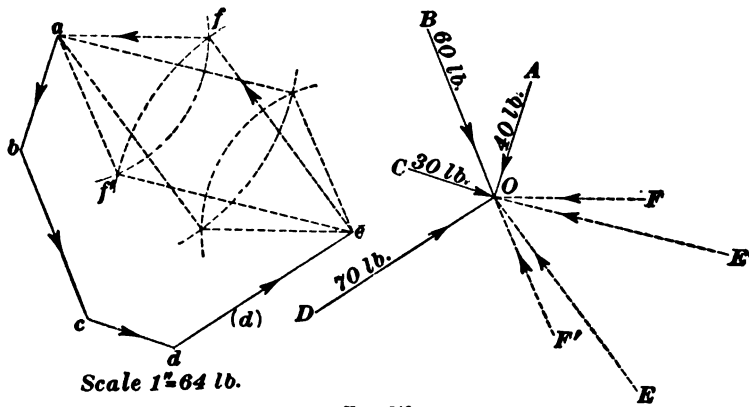


FIG. 219.

40, 60, 30, and 70 pounds, respectively. Also acting upon the same point are two forces, $EO = 80$ pounds and $FO = 50$ pounds, whose *directions*, i.e., *lines of action and sense*, are unknown. It is desired to find the directions of the two forces EO and FO, in order that there may be equilibrium.

SOLUTION.—Draw end to end consecutively, and to any scale, the lines representing the known forces AO, BO, CO, and DO, as ab, bc, cd, and de, in (d). From e as a center, strike the arc of a circle having a radius equal to $EO = 80$ pounds; and, from a as a center,

strike the arc of a circle having a radius equal to $FO = 50$ pounds; or *vice versa*. If the forces are in equilibrium, the arcs will intersect, as at f and f'. Draw the lines $e\,f$ and $f\,a$ (or $e\,f'$ and $f'\,a$); mark upon the lines arrows indicating directions corresponding to the general directions of the other lines around the polygon. Then, the directions of the lines $e\,f$ and $f\,a$ (or $e\,f'$ and $f'\,a$) will be the directions of the forces $E\,O$ and $F\,O$, respectively. If $E\,O$ has the direction $e\,f$, then, $F\,O$ must have the direction $f\,a$; but, if $E\,O$ has the direction $e\,f'$, as indicated by the line $E'\,O$, then, $F\,O$ must have the direction $f'\,a$, as indicated by the line $F'\,O$. Or, if the center for the larger radius had been taken at a, and for the shorter radius at e, the figure enclosed by dotted lines would have been reversed, as indicated, but the results would have been the same.

1113. *Case* (*d*)—EXAMPLE.—In Fig. 220, the forces $A\,O$, $B\,O$, $C\,O$, and $D\,O$, which meet at the common point O, again have the values 40, 60, 30, and 70 pounds, respectively, as in Fig. 218. Two other forces, designated as $E\,O$ and $F\,O$, act upon the point O. The *lines of*

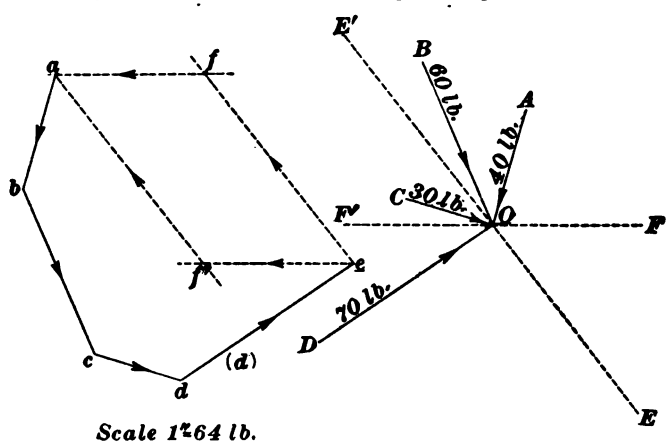


FIG. 220.

action of these two forces are the lines $E\,E'$ and $F\,F'$, but neither the *magnitude* nor the *sense* of either force is known. It is desired to find the magnitude and sense of the two forces $E\,O$ and $F\,O$, in order that they may be in equilibrium.

SOLUTION.—Draw end to end consecutively, and to any scale, the lines representing the known forces $A\,O$, $B\,O$, $C\,O$, and $D\,O$, as $a\,b$, $b\,c$, $c\,d$, and $d\,e$, in (*d*). Through e, draw a line of indefinite length parallel to $E\,E'$, and through a, draw a line of indefinite length parallel to $F\,F'$; these lines will intersect at f. Mark arrow-heads upon them having the same general directions around the polygon as the

lines representing the known forces. Then, the line ef will represent the force whose line of action is $E\,E'$, and the line $f\,a$ will represent the force whose line of action is $F\,F'$. The same result will be obtained if the line parallel to $E\,E'$ is drawn through a, and the line representing $F\,F'$ is drawn through e. The force $E\,O$ may have the position $E\,O$ or $O\,E'$, and the force $F\,O$ may have the position $F\,O$ or $O\,F'$.

The geometrical equation or force polygon for the last condition (d) is very valuable; it is extensively used for determining the stresses in bridges, roofs, and other framed structures, when the lines of action of the two unknown forces are *not parallel.*

1114. Bow's Notation.

The following system of notation, devised by Mr. R. H. Bow, of Edinburgh, is of great assistance in the graphical solution of statical problems:

ILLUSTRATION.—In Fig. 221, let the lines represent a system of forces which meet at a common point. Instead of being designated by letters written at the ends of the lines,

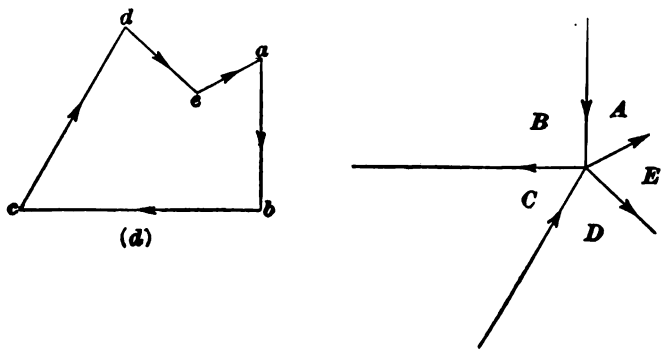


FIG. 221.

they are designated by letters placed in the spaces *between* the lines. Any line (or force) is designated by the two letters between which it is situated. For instance, the vertical line in the figure is designated as the line $A\ B$, the horizontal line as the line $B\ C$, etc. The force polygon (d), Fig. 221, is drawn in the same manner as has been explained; the lines are designated by letters placed at the angles or

ends of the lines; and the line designated by any two letters represents the same force as that represented by the line that is designated by the corresponding letters in Fig. 221. Thus, in (*d*), Fig. 221, the line *a b* represents the same force that in Fig. 221 is represented by the line *A B*, the line *b c* represents the same force as the line *B C*, *c d* the same force as *C D*, etc.

This very convenient method of notation will be adopted; small letters placed at the angles of the force polygon will designate a force which in the original figure or frame is designated by the corresponding capital letters placed in the spaces and between which the line is situated. In the original figure, as Fig. 221, any *entire space* not crossed by a line representing a force will be designated by the *same letter*.

1115. Forces in a Frame—External and Internal Forces.

ILLUSTRATION.—Fig. 222 represents a triangular frame which is acted upon by three forces. The directions of the three forces are known, and if their lines of action were produced they would all meet at the common point *O*; therefore, they are concurring forces. (See Art. **1095.**) The magnitude of one force (*A B*) is known, and the condition of equilibrium between all the forces is assumed. The forces are designated by Bow's notation, each force being designated by the two letters between which the line is situated. The three forces which act upon the frame are *A B*, *B D*, and *D A*; as these forces are entirely external to the frame itself, they are called **external forces.** It is evident that they must be resisted and held in equilibrium by forces in the frame; for they are applied at different points, and equilibrium between them can only be produced by means of forces in the frame. These forces in the members of the frame are called **internal forces,** or **stresses.**

The lines of action of the internal forces must extend in the directions of the members *B C*, *A C*, and *C D*, of the frame. Each joint (*1*, *2*, and *3*) is the point of application

of one external and two internal forces. The lines of action of all the forces are known, and, at the joint *2*, the magnitude and direction of the external force $A\,B$ (= 1,000 pounds) are known. By beginning with this known force, the force polygon for the forces which meet at this joint may be drawn, and the values of the two internal forces which act upon this joint may be determined. As each internal force

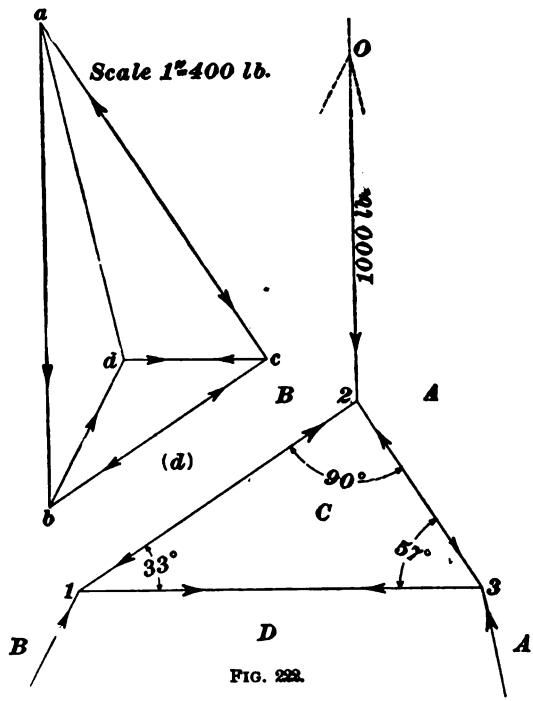


FIG. 222.

thus determined acts equally upon two joints, one force which acts upon each of the joints *1* and *2* becomes known; therefore, as but three forces act upon each joint, the force polygon may be drawn for each of those joints and the remaining forces determined. Thus it will be seen that by commencing at a joint at which not more than two forces which meet upon it are unknown, all the remaining forces may be determined by drawing the force polygons. The manner of drawing the polygons will now be explained.

1116. Consider first, the forces which act upon joint *2*; draw *a b*, Fig. 222, (*d*), parallel to the direction of the known force *A B*, making the length of the line equal to that force by any convenient scale. The scale used in the figure is 400 pounds to the inch and *a b* is made $\frac{1000}{400} = 2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Having thus drawn *a b*, draw *a c* and *b c* parallel, respectively, to *A C* and *B C*; *a c* and *b c* will then represent the stresses on *A C* and *B C*, respectively, and, with their arrow-heads properly placed (pointing from *b* towards *c*, and from *c* towards *a*), complete the polygon for joint *2*. The direction of the arrow-heads is of great importance, but very simply determined; for it will be remembered that the arrow-heads show the direction in which a pencil must travel around the polygon from *a*, through *b* and *c*, and back to *a*. On the line *a b*, the direction of the arrow-head is given by the known direction of *A B*, and is placed nearer *b*, the latter point corresponding to joint *2*, which is the point of application of the force *A B*. On the line *b c*, the arrow-head must point from *b* towards *c*, and be nearer to the end *c*; on the line *c a*, the arrow-head must point towards, and be nearer to, the end *a*. In this polygon, the arrow-head in each case points towards the *shorter* portion of the line, indicating that the sense of the force (which must always correspond to the direction in which the pencil travels) is in each case *towards* its point of application (joint *2*), or, in other words, indicating that each force *pushes* against the joint. Measuring with the same scale used for *a b*, the line *b c* = 544 pounds, and the line *c a* = 838 pounds.

It has been thus found that the force in *B C* pushes against joint *2* an amount equal to 544 pounds, represented by the line *b c*; but the member *B C* simply connects joint *2* with joint *1*; it is attached to joints *2* and *1* only, and the internal force in it is not affected by any other force except at those two joints; it simply transfers the push from one joint to the other. Therefore, the force in *B C* must push against joint *1* the *same amount* that it pushes against joint *2*, but in the *opposite direction*. Hence, the line *b c* (which represents the force in *B C*) must be common to two force

polygons, but in the polygon for joint *1* it must be drawn in the direction opposite to that in which it was drawn for joint *2*. As shown in the figure, the second arrow-head marked upon it, which relates to its sense with reference to joint *1*, must point from *c* towards *b*, and be nearer the latter point, which in the new polygon corresponds to the point of application of the force.

For joint *1*, draw from *b* and *c*, the lines *b d* and *c d* parallel, respectively, to *B D* and *C D*; then will *b d* and *c d* represent the forces *B D* and *C D*, respectively. In going over the polygon to mark the arrow-heads, it must be remembered that the starting direction is from *c* towards *b*, and then through *d*, back to *c*. The direction in which the pencil must travel in returning to the starting point *c* indicates that the external force *B D* pushes against joint *1*, but that the internal force *D C* *pulls away* from the joint; in the latter case, the arrow-head points towards the *longer* portion of the line. Measuring with the scale used for *a b*, the line *b d* = 338 pounds, and the line *d c* = 296 pounds.

Now consider joint *3*. For the same reasons which were given in regard to the direction in which the internal force *B C* (= 544 pounds) acts upon joint *1*, the internal force *A C* (= 838 pounds) is known to act upon joint *3* in the opposite direction from that in which it acts upon joint *2*, and the internal force *C D* (= 296 pounds) to act upon joint *3* in the opposite direction to that in which it acts upon joint *1*. Therefore, in constructing the polygon for joint *3*, mark additional arrow-heads on *a c* and *c d*, near the opposite ends of the lines and pointing in the opposite directions from those that have been marked for joints *1* and *2*, and draw *d a*, marking its arrow-head to correspond with the new or reversed arrow-heads marked on *a c* and *c d*. The line *d a* represents the force *D A*, and its arrow-head indicates that *D A* *pushes* against joint *3*. By scaling *d a* it is found to equal 720 pounds. If the operations have been properly done, *d a* will be parallel to *D A*.

1117. It will be noticed that in (*d*), Fig. 222, each line which represents the internal force, or stress, in a member of the frame has two arrow-heads marked upon it. If these arrow-heads have been marked in accordance with the instructions previously given (see also Art. **1103**), they will in each case indicate whether the stress represented by the line upon which they are marked is compression (push) or tension (pull). If on any line of a force polygon, the two arrow-heads point *away* from each other, such relative directions indicate that the internal force or stress in the member is compression; but if the arrow-heads point *towards* each other, then *tension* is indicated. Thus, in Fig. 222 and in (*d*), Fig. 222, the stresses in the members *A C* and *B C*, which are represented by the lines *a c* and *b c*, are compression, for the arrow-heads on each of these lines point away from each other, while the arrow-heads upon the line *c d*, which represents the stress in the member *C D*, indicate that the stress in that member is tension, because they point towards each other.

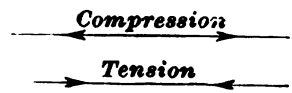


FIG. 223.

The relative positions of the arrow-heads to denote tension or compression are shown in Fig. 223.

1118. When the directions of the forces which act upon a body are towards each other, their combined action tends to shorten or compress the body; this character of stress is called **compressive stress,** or **compression.** It is evident that the forces of the body which resist compression must act outwards or away from each other, as indicated by the arrow-heads upon the line which denotes compression in Fig. 223.

When the forces which act upon a body are exerted in directions away from each other, tending to elongate or stretch the body, this character of the stress is called **tensile stress,** or **tension.** It is also evident that the forces in the body which resist tension must act inwards or towards each other, as indicated by the arrow-heads upon the line denoting tension in Fig. 223.

The subject of stresses will be more fully treated in connection with Strength of Materials.

1119. A system of force polygons, as (*d*), Fig. 222, for determining the forces in a frame, is called a **stress diagram**; it determines the relative values of the internal forces, or stresses, in the several members of the frame.

1120. A frame which is constructed for the purpose of resisting the action of force by transferring it from one position to another is called a **truss.**

ILLUSTRATION.—Fig. 224 represents a form of truss that is sometimes built; it supports at the center a load of 3,000 pounds, represented by the line *B F*. But the truss can

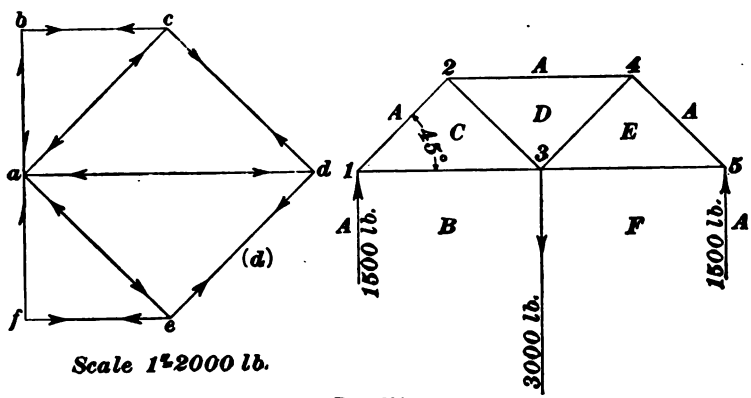


FIG. 224.

not support a load without being itself supported by other external forces balancing the load; for the office of the truss is simply to transfer the effect of the load from its position at the joint *3* to the supporting forces *A B* at joint *1*, and *F A* at joint *5*. As the load is midway between these supporting forces, it is transferred to, and supported by, the forces *A B* and *F A* in equal portions; that is, $AB = FA = \frac{1}{2} BF = 1{,}500$ pounds, and $AB + FA = 1{,}500 + 1{,}500 = 3{,}000$ pounds $= BF$. The subject of supporting forces will be noticed further along. The weight of the frame itself will be neglected in this case; the stress

diagram will be drawn for the forces referring to the load only. For clearness, several letters *A* are written in Fig. 224; they all designate the same space. Since in the stress diagram each force polygon is drawn in succession for the forces which meet at a joint of the frame, the forces are in each case treated as concurring forces. The diagram (*d*), Fig. 224, is the stress diagram for the frame here considered. In drawing the stress diagram, it is necessary to begin at a joint at which not more than two quantities are unknown, with reference to the forces which meet at that joint (Art. **1109**). At joint *1*, three forces meet; namely, the supporting force *A B* and the internal forces in the two members of the frame which connect at this joint, *B C* and *C A*. The directions of all three forces are known, and the magnitude of one force (the supporting force *A B*) is known; therefore, at this joint but two quantities are unknown (the magnitudes of the internal forces in *B C* and *C A*), and the stress diagram may be begun by drawing the force polygon for the forces which meet at joint *1*.

Draw *a b*, Fig. 224, (*d*), parallel to the direction of the supporting force *A B*, and equal to that force, to any convenient scale. In (*d*), Fig. 224, a scale of 2,000 pounds to the inch is used; therefore, $a\ b = \frac{1500}{2000} = 0.75$ inch. In order that *a b* may have the same sense as the supporting force *A B*, it must be drawn upwards from *a* to *b*, parallel to *A B*. From *b* the pencil must be returned to the starting point *a*, by lines drawn parallel to the lines of action of the two remaining forces which act upon this joint, or parallel to *B C* and *C A*. The lines *b c* and *c a* are such lines; the pencil can travel from *b* to *c* and from *c* to the starting point *a*, thus passing completely around the force polygon *a b c a* without being raised from the paper. It is of course not expedient to do this in the actual operation of drawing the lines; the line *a b* is drawn equal and parallel to *A B*; then, through *b*, a line of indefinite length is drawn parallel to *B C*, and through *a*, a line of indefinite length is drawn parallel to *A C*; these two lines must be so drawn that they will

intersect, and their intersection will be the point *c*. (Arts. **1113** and **1116.**) When the lines are thus drawn, and the arrow-head on *a b* marked, the arrow-heads on *b c* and *c a* are placed in the direction in which the pencil travels in moving around the polygon from *a* to *b*, then to *c*, and back to *a*. (See also Art. **1103.**) The direction in which the pencil travels along each line will represent the sense of each respective force *with reference to the joint for which the polygon is drawn.* Hereafter, half arrow-heads will usually be marked upon lines which represent external forces, as *A B*, *B F*, and *F A*, acting upon a truss or frame work, to distinguish them from the internal forces, or stresses, in the members which will be designated by full arrow-heads. The arrow-head on the line *a b* is marked nearer the upper end *b*, because the joint *1*, which is the point of application of the supporting force *A B*, is at the upper end of the line which represents that force; on the line *b c*, the arrow-head is marked nearer the left end *b*, because joint *1*, the point of application of the force, is at the left end of the line *B C*; on the line *c a*, the arrow-head is marked nearer the lower end *a*, because joint *1*, for which the polygon is drawn, is at the lower end of the line *C A*. It is found that the force in *B C* is exerted in a direction *away* from joint *1*, while the force in *C A* is exerted *towards* it. Measuring with the scale used for *a b*, the line *b c* is found to equal 1,500 pounds, and the line *c a* to equal 2,120 pounds. Had the scale been sufficiently large and the work been done with sufficient care, so that exceedingly accurate results had been obtained, it would have been found that the force in *C A*, or line *c a*, equals 2,121.3 pounds. Such degree of accuracy, however, is seldom necessary.

Next consider the forces which act upon joint *2*: Three forces meet at this point; the lines of action of all three forces are known, for they act in the three members of the truss which meet at this joint; the magnitude and sense of one force (the stress in *A C*, represented by the line *c a*) have been found. As the force in *A C* was found to push against joint *1*, it must also push against joint *2*, for it simply

transfers the push from one joint to the other; it is evident that it must push against joint *2* in the opposite direction from which it pushes against joint *1*.

Therefore, mark an additional arrow-head on the opposite end of *a c*, pointing in the opposite direction; from *a* draw *a d* parallel to *A D*, and from *c* draw *c d* parallel to *C D*; mark the arrow-heads as usual, starting in the direction of the new arrow-head marked on *a c*, and this will complete the diagram for joint *2*. The line *c d* scales 2,120 pounds and *d a* 3,000 pounds.

For joint *4*, mark an arrow-head on *a d*, in a reversed position and direction, and draw *a e* and *d e* parallel to *A E* and *D E*, respectively. Mark the arrow-heads as in the preceding cases. The lines *a e* and *d e* are found to be each equal to 2,120 pounds.

For joint *5*, the force in *A E* has just been found; it equals *e a* = 2,120 pounds. Mark an arrow-head in a reversed position and direction on *a e;* draw *a f* and *e f* parallel to *A F* and *E F*, respectively, and mark arrow-heads as usual. The line *e f* = 1,500 pounds, and *f a* = 1,500 pounds = $\frac{1}{2}$ *b f* = *a b*, as it should. It is seen that the value of *f a*, as found from the diagram, must equal the supporting force *F A*, already known. This is a good check upon the work.

The five forces in the members which meet at joint *3* have all been determined in the polygons for the joints *1*, *2*, *4*, and *5*, but in order that the stress diagram shall be in every way complete, it will be necessary to consider these forces with reference to the joint *3*. As each force is known, it will make no difference which is taken first. Start with any force, as the load *B F*; this force is equal in amount to the sum of the supporting forces *A B* and *F A*, but must have the opposite direction, i. e., it is exerted downwards, while the supporting forces are exerted upwards. Therefore, beginning at *b* in the stress diagram, pass downwards over the line *b f*, which is equal in amount, but opposite in sense, to the sum of the lines *f a* and *a b*, and mark arrow-heads in reversed positions and directions on

f e, *e d*, *d c*, and *c b*, returning to the starting point *b*, for the force in each of the members which meet at the joint *3* must act upon this joint in a direction opposite to that in which it is exerted upon the joint at the opposite end of the member. The reversed arrow-heads will indicate the sense of the forces with reference to joint *3*.

After the forces which act on joint *2* had been found, joint *3* might have been considered instead of joint *4*, since the directions of all of the five forces which act at *3* are known, and only the two forces *D E* and *E F* are unknown. (Art. **1113.**)

If the arrows have been properly marked upon the lines, they will, by comparison with Fig. 223, indicate the character of the stress in each member of the truss, that is, whether the stress is tension or compression. It is found that the members *A C*, *A D*, and *A E* are in compression, while the members *B C*, *C D*, *D E*, and *E F* are in tension. The stress $a\,c = c\,d = d\,e = e\,a = 2{,}120$ pounds; the stress $b\,c = f\,e = 1{,}500$ pounds, and the stress $a\,d = 3{,}000$ pounds $= b\,c + f\,e$.

1121. In (*d*), Fig. 224, the line *b f*, which represents the load, is called the **load line.** In drawing the stress diagram, the load line is usually drawn first and the loads laid off upon it.

NON-CONCURRING FORCES.

1122. Thus far force has been considered with reference to its direct action only, and, therefore, its treatment has been limited to concurring forces. Before treating of non-concurring forces the subject of **moments** must be explained.

A force can act in two ways: it can either produce a motion of translation, that is, cause all points of the body acted upon to move in parallel straight lines; or it can produce a motion of rotation, that is, turn the body. A **moment** measures the capacity of a force to produce rotation.

1123. The **moment of a force** *about a point is the product of the magnitude of the force by the perpendicular distance from the point to the line of action of the force.* (See Art. **906.**)

Thus, in Fig. 225, the moment of the force F about the point O equals $F\,l$.

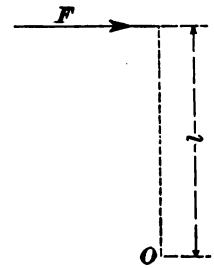


FIG. 225

1124. The following principles are of great importance, and should be thoroughly understood:

(*a*) *A moment always implies a tendency to* **rotation;** *if it is unresisted, rotation occurs.*

(*b*) *The point about which the moment is taken, i. e., the point about which rotation would occur under the action of the force, is variously known as the* **origin** *of* **moments,** *the* **center** *of* **moments,** *and the* **center of rotation.** The last name will here be used. In Fig. 225, the point O is the center of rotation of the moment $F\,l$.

(*c*) *The* **lever arm** *of a moment is the perpendicular distance from the center of rotation to the line of action of the force.* In Fig. 225, l is the lever arm of the moment $F\,l$.

(*d*) *The moment of a force about a point depends upon the lever arm and the magnitude of the force only; it is independent of the point of application of the force.*

ILLUSTRATION.—In Fig. 226, the force F might really act at P upon the material lever $P\,O$, which is inclined to the line of action $A\,B$ of the force. But, according to Art. **1095,** *any* point in the line of action of the force may be considered as its point of application; the point of application should always be considered to be such a point in the line of action, as P', that the lever arm $O\,P'$ will be perpendicular to the line of action. The inclined lever arm might have any inclination, and, therefore, any length between

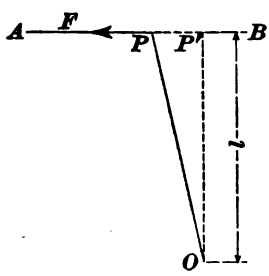


FIG. 226.

the same line of action and center of rotation, but the perpendicular lever arm can have but one length; the force, if applied to the perpendicular lever at P', will have the same rotative effect as if applied at P or upon any inclined lever.

1125. *The amount, magnitude, or numerical value of a moment is the measure of the rotative effect of the force at the center of rotation*, or, as said above (Art. **1122**), *of the capacity of the force to produce rotation about a given point.*

It is the product of the magnitude of the force (in pounds or tons) by the length of the perpendicular lever (in inches or feet), and is, therefore, usually expressed in foot-tons, foot-pounds, inch-tons, or inch-pounds.

In Fig. 226, if $F =$ the force and $l =$ the lever arm, the moment $= F\,l$; or, if $F = 10$ pounds and $l = 20$ inches, the moment $= 10 \times 20 = 200$ inch-pounds.

Either the inch-pound or the foot-pound will here be used as the unit of moments, according to the convenience of each special case. When the inch-pound is used, it represents the effect of a force of one pound acting upon a lever arm of one inch; and when the foot-pound is used as the unit of moments, it represents the effect of a force of one pound acting upon a lever arm of one foot. *To reduce inch-pounds to foot-pounds, divide by 12. To reduce foot-pounds to inch-pounds, multiply by 12.*

NOTE.—In Mechanics, the term "foot-pound" is used in a very different sense; namely, *the work performed in lifting* a weight of one pound through a *height* of one foot. The two meanings of the term should not be confused. In one case, it is the unit of work, and, in the other the unit of rotative effect.

1126. The **direction** of a moment is said to be to the *right* if its tendency is to cause rotation in a direction corresponding to the movement of the hands of a clock, and to the *left* if it tends to cause rotation in the opposite direction. Thus, in Fig. 225, the direction of the moment is to the right, while in Fig. 226, the direction of the moment is to the left.

1127. A moment will here be considered as **positive** when it tends to produce rotation to the *right*, and as **negative** when it tends to cause rotation to the *left*. Thus, the moment of the force in Fig. 225 is positive; that of the force in Fig. 226, negative.

In computations, *positive* moments are designated by the + and *negative* moments by the − sign. In Fig. 225, the moment is $+F\,l$, or simply $F\,l$ (+ sign being understood); but, in Fig. 226, the moment is $-F\,l$.

1128. *The moment of a force about any point in its line of action is zero*, for the lever arm of a moment is the perpendicular distance from the center of rotation to the line of action of the force; and, if this distance is zero, as in this case, then the moment of the force F will be $F \times 0 = 0$.

1129. *For the existence of an effective moment two forces are necessary: one, which we may call the applied force* (as F in Figs. 225 and 226), *tending to produce rotation; and another, which is of the nature of a resistance, acting at the center of rotation, equal in amount, but opposite in direction, to the applied force. The effect of the latter is to fix the center of rotation, which would otherwise be moved.*

ILLUSTRATIONS.—(*a*) Fig. 227 illustrates a very simple example of a moment; it represents a stick standing on end. If a steady horizontal force F, just sufficient to tip the stick, is applied to its upper end, the stick will rotate about O; that is, it will fall over, the top moving in the direction of the dotted line, while the bottom remains at O. When the force F is applied to the top of the stick, an exactly equal and opposite force F' is incited at the bottom; for, were it not for the force F', the stick would not rotate about O, but would simply slide along towards the

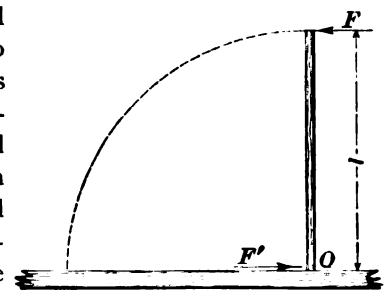


FIG. 227.

left, the point O (center of rotation) not being fixed, the motion would be one of translation, not of rotation. The force F', in this case, is the friction between the end of the stick and the body on which it rests.

(*b*) Fig. 228 represents a shorter stick or block which can not be so easily tipped. If it rests on smooth, slippery ice, and a steady horizontal force F is applied to the top, it will slide along on the ice and rotation will not occur. But, if it rests on some substance which will offer considerable frictional resistance, this resistance becomes an equal and opposite force, F', and the block will not slide, but tip over; or, in other words, a moment will be formed and rotation will take place.

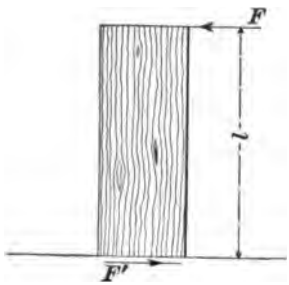


FIG. 228.

1130. *When two equal and opposite forces act at different points, thus tending to cause rotation, the combination is called* ***a statical couple.*** (See Arts. **907** to **909.**)

The **lever arm** of a couple is *the perpendicular distance between the forces.*

The **moment** of a couple is *the product of either of the equal forces by the lever arm.* The intersection of the line of action of either force with the common lever arm may be regarded as the center of rotation, and the moment of the couple as the moment of the other force about that center.

ILLUSTRATION.—Thus, in the couple represented in Fig. 229, the forces F and F' are equal, and act at the opposite ends of the same lever arm l. The moment of the couple is either $F\,l$ or $F'\,l$; for, as indicated in the figure, the force F tends to cause rotation about the point O, while F' also tends to cause rotation about O, and as O is a point midway between the two forces, the moment of $F = F \times \frac{1}{2}\,l$, and the moment of $F' = F' \times \frac{1}{2}\,l$. As the forces are equal and have equal lever arms, the combined moment of the two

forces equals $\frac{1}{2} Fl + \frac{1}{2} F'l = Fl = F'l =$ the product of either force by the lever arm. If, then, either force of a couple be considered as tending to cause rotation about the point of application of the second force, and the effect of the second force is ignored, the result thus obtained will be the same as if the center of rotation were taken between the two forces, and the moments of the two forces taken about that center. In general, *any point in the plane of a couple may be taken as the center of rotation.* For, if through that point a perpendicular be drawn to the common direction of the forces, the algebraic sum of the moments of the forces about that point will always be equal to the constant product Fl.

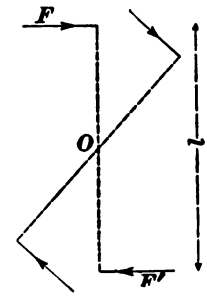


FIG. 229.

1131. *The effect of a statical couple, and the only effect, is tendency to cause rotation.*

ILLUSTRATION.— A good illustration of a statical couple is the pulley by which a line of shafting is driven by a belt, Fig. 230. By means of the belt a force F is continually applied to the rim of the pulley, causing it to rotate. Another force F' must be continually applied to the axis of the pulley by means of the journal, or the pulley would be drawn from its position by the belt. The moment at the axis or center of rotation, i. e., the measure of the effect of the applied force on the shaft, is equal to the force F (pull of the belt) multiplied by the radius of the pulley.

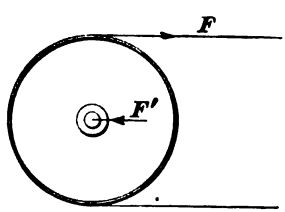


FIG. 230.

1132. *When rotation does not occur as the effect of a couple, then the moment of the couple is balanced by the opposite moment of a second couple, and the forces are thus held in equilibrium. A couple can not be balanced by a single force.*

ILLUSTRATION.—Suppose, in Fig. 231, that $A\ C$ is a lever 30 inches long, having a fulcrum at B, 10 inches from A. If a weight is suspended from C, it will cause the bar to rotate about B in the direction of the arrow. A weight suspended from A will cause it to revolve in the opposite direction, as indicated by the arrow. Suppose, for simplicity, that the bar itself weighs nothing. If equal weights of 12 pounds are hung at A and C, it is evident that the bar will revolve in the direction of the arrow at C, on account of the arm $B\ C$ being longer than the arm $A\ C$. Let the weight at A be increased until it equals 24 pounds; the bar will then balance exactly, and any additional weight at A will cause the bar to rotate in the opposite direction, as shown by the arrow at that point. When the lever is balanced, i. e., when the forces are in equilibrium, it will be found that $24 \times 10 = 12 \times 20$, or, considering B as the center of rotation, $24 \times$ perpendicular distance $A\ B = 12 \times$ perpendicular distance $B\ C$. In other words, the moment of W about B must equal the moment of P about B. Further, P tends to cause rotation in the direction in which the hands of a watch move, and is positive, or $+$; W tends to cause rotation in an opposite direction, and is negative, or $-$. Adding the two algebraically, $P \times B\ C + (-W \times A\ B) = P \times B\ C - W \times A\ C = 0$, since the two moments are equal.

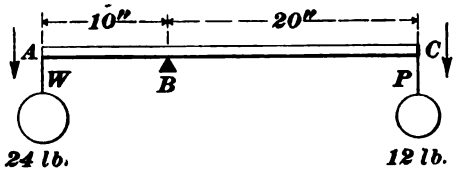


FIG. 231.

1133. When the moments of several forces are taken about the same point or center, the algebraic sum of all the moments is the **resultant moment** of the forces about that point.

In other words, the resultant (effective) moment at any point is the arithmetic difference between the sum of the (positive) moments which tend to cause rotation to the right,

and the sum of the (negative) moments which tend to cause rotation to the left about the point.

In Fig. 231, the positive and negative moments were found to balance, leaving no resultant moment when the moments of *all* the forces were considered. In such cases the algebraic sum of all the moments about a point is zero.

ILLUSTRATION.—In Fig. 232 the moment of the force at a about the point $b = 400 \times 25 = 10{,}000$ foot-pounds to the right, or positive. The positive moment of the same force about the point $c = 400 \times 50 = 20{,}000$ foot-pounds, while the negative moment of the force at b about the same point $= 400 \times 25 = 10{,}000$ foot-pounds; therefore, the resultant moment at c from the forces at the left of that point $= 20{,}000 - 10{,}000 = 10{,}000$ foot-pounds to the right, or positive.

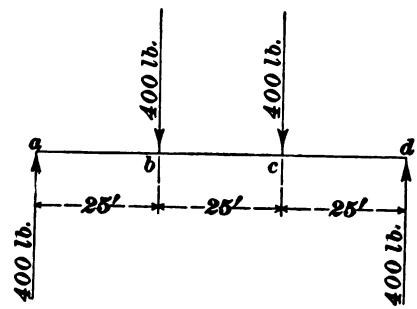


FIG. 232.

EXAMPLE.—What is the resultant moment at d, Fig. 232?

SOLUTION.—The positive moment of the supporting force at $a = 400 \times 75 = 30{,}000$ foot-pounds; the negative moment of the load at $b = 400 \times 50 = 20{,}000$ foot-pounds; and the negative moment of the load at $c = 400 \times 25 = 10{,}000$ foot-pounds. The resultant moment $= 30{,}000 - 20{,}000 - 10{,}000 = 0$.

1134. *In any structure, it is a necessary condition of equilibrium that the moments of* **all** *the forces about any point should balance; in other words, the algebraic sum of the moments of all the forces about any point must equal zero.*

If, at any point the moments did not balance, the structure, or some part of it, would rotate about that point, that is, it would be overturned, as when a dam is pushed down by the pressure of the water. But, as the structure, or any part of it, does not rotate, the moments of all the forces which act upon it must be balanced at every point.

1135. *In any structure, the algebraic sum of the moments of all the* **external forces** *about any point must equal zero.*

As the moments of the internal forces simply tend to keep the structure intact by resisting any tendency to rupture or distortion of the structure itself, and act entirely within the structure, they can not prevent the structure *as a whole* from rotating about any point. The entire structure would, therefore, rotate if the moments of the external forces, which always tend to cause rotation, did not balance about every point.

ILLUSTRATION.—It was found that the resultant moment of the external forces at the left of the point c, Fig. 232, about that point = 10,000 foot-pounds (positive). But the external force at d was not considered; the moment of this force about c is $-400 \times 25 = -10{,}000$ foot-pounds (negative). Therefore, the resultant moment of *all* the external forces about the point c is $10{,}000 - 10{,}000 = 0$.

1136. *In a structure, the resultant moment of the external forces on either side of any point is called the* **bending moment** *at that point.*

The bending moment is usually designated by the letter M. In computing the bending moment at any point, it is customary to consider the forces at the *left* of it; this custom will always be followed except when otherwise stated. Thus, at the point c in Fig. 232, $M = 400 \times 50 - 400 \times 25 = 20{,}000 - 10{,}000 = 10{,}000$ foot-pounds. The bending moment is the moment which causes bending stresses in a structure, and which at every point in the structure must be balanced or resisted by the moments of those stresses.

1137. *The moment of the internal forces or stresses*, which at any point in a structure *resists the bending moment*, is called the **resisting moment.**

NOTE.—The term **resisting moment,** as used here in a general sense, must not be confused with the term **moment of resistance** employed to designate the resisting moment of solid beams. The latter term relates to the Strength of Materials, and will be studied in connection with that subject.

1138. *At every point in the structure, the resisting moment must equal the bending moment.*

When in a structure the moments of the external forces at one side of any point do not balance, but must be balanced by the moments of forces on the opposite side of the point, as in Fig. 231, it is evident that the opposing moments on the opposite sides of the point tend to bend the structure about the point. If the structure offered no resistance to this bending, it would close up like a jack-knife. The *resisting moment* of the internal forces at each point in the structure must be sufficient to resist the effect of the opposing moments, or the *bending moment* of the external forces on the opposite sides of the point.

ILLUSTRATION.—In Fig. 233, the forces F and G represent portions of a load situated at the center of a beam; the load is, for clearness, represented as though divided. A portion of the load (the force F) forms a couple with the supporting force F', while the other portion (the force G) forms a couple with the supporting force G'. The tendency of these two couples is to cause rotation, either about the point of application of the combined forces F and G, or about the points of application of the supporting forces F_1 and G_1. But the two halves of the beam do not rotate about the points of application of either the supporting forces or the load, because the moments of the couple formed by these (external) forces are resisted and equilibrated by the opposite moments of the couple formed by the internal forces of the beam c and t. These internal forces are compressive stress in the upper portion of the beam, and tensile stress in the lower portion, as indicated in the figure; their moments resist the moments of the external forces, and preserve the form of the beam.

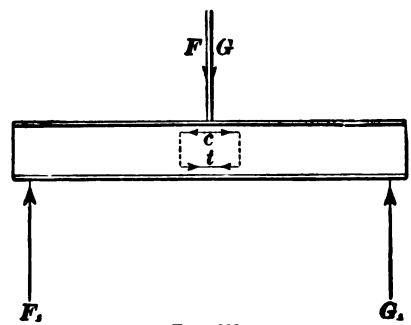


FIG. 233.

1139. The preceding principle forms the basis for the analysis of stresses by what is known as the Moment Method. The amount of the bending moment is found at each required point in the structure; and as at each point the resisting moment must equal the bending moment, if the bending moment at any point is divided by the lever arm of the resisting moment (the effective depth of the structure), the quotient will equal the resisting force or bending stress in the structure at that point. This principle will be used in the analysis of stresses.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

NOTE.—The following examples refer to Fig. 232:

1. What is the moment at a point 10 feet to the right of *a*, caused by the supporting force at *a*? Ans. 4,000 foot-pounds.

2. What is the moment caused by the same force at a point 20 feet to the right of *a*? Ans. 8,000 foot-pounds.

3. What is the resultant moment at a point 10 feet to the right of *b*, caused by the forces at the left of this point?

Ans. 14,000 − 4,000 = 10,000 foot-pounds.

4. What is the resultant moment at a point midway between *b* and *c* caused by the forces at the left?

Ans. 15,000 − 5,000 = 10,000 foot-pounds.

5. What are the resultant moments at *b* and *c*, respectively? See Art. **1133,** Illustration.

NOTE.—It will be noticed that when the resultant moments are the same at any two points, and no forces are applied between the points, the resultant moment will be the same at all intermediate points.

6. What is the resultant moment at a point 5 feet to the right of *c* caused by the forces at the left?

Ans. 22,000 − 12,000 − 2,000 = 8,000 foot-pounds.

7. What is the resultant moment at a point 15 feet to the right of *c* caused by the forces at the left?

Ans. 26,000 − 16,000 − 6,000 = 4,000 foot-pounds.

8. In each of the preceding examples, compute the resultant moment for the forces at the *right* of the point, and compare both the amount and sign of the answers with the preceding answers.

REACTIONS OF SUPPORTS.

1140. The forces that support a structure, and, through the medium of the structure, resist the final effect of the loads upon it (including its own weight) are called **reactions.**

According to the third law of motion, every action has an

equal and opposite reaction. (Art. **870.**) When a structure is acted upon by downward forces, the supports *react* upwards. The structure simply transfers the effect of the downward forces or loads to the points of support; but these downward forces would move the points of support downwards, were they not resisted and balanced by the equal effect of the supporting forces which *react* upwards, so that all the forces which act upon each point of support are in equilibrium. In order to ascertain the amounts of the internal forces in a structure necessary to resist the effect of the external forces, the value of each reaction must be found. If a beam which is merely supported at each end is loaded uniformly over its entire length, or is loaded in the middle only, it is evident that the reaction at each support is one-half the load plus one-half the weight of the beam. But when a load is placed in such a position upon a beam that the distances from the load to the two ends of the beam are unequal, the reactions of the two supports will be unequal. But, in all cases where the loads and reactions are vertical, *the sum of the reactions equals the sum of the loads* (*the weight of the structure included*). For simplicity, the weight of the structure itself will here be neglected. The upward reactions are considered *positive*, or $+$, and the downward forces *negative*, or $-$. The loads and reactions constitute the external forces acting upon the structure. (Art. **1115.**)

1141. In order that a structure may be in equilibrium, three conditions must be fulfilled by the forces acting upon it:

I. *The algebraic sum of all vertical forces* $= 0$.

II. *The algebraic sum of all horizontal forces* $= 0$.

III. *The algebraic sum of the moments of all forces about any point* $= 0$. See Art. **1134.**

1142. According to Art. **1136,** if a structure is supported at each end and does not extend beyond either

support (which is the most common case), *there can be no bending moment at either reaction;* for, on one side of each reaction there is no force to cause moment, and the algebraic sum of the moments of the external forces on the other side of the reaction is zero, because all the external forces which cause moments about the point are considered. (Art. **1135.**)

If the center of moments is taken on the line of action of any force, the moment of that force with reference to this center of moments is zero, since the length of the lever arm is zero. (Art. **1128.**) Consequently, if there are but two unknown forces acting upon a structure (as, for example, the two reactions), one may be found by taking the center of moments on the line of action of the other, and adding, algebraically, the moments of all the other forces about this point. By thus taking the center of moments on the line of action of the other unknown force, the second unknown force may be found. This will be made clear in the two following articles.

1143. A Single Load in Any Position Upon the Span.

ILLUSTRATION.—In Fig. 234, the force W may represent *any* single load, in *any* position, upon *any* span l. To find the value of R_1, take moments about B, the point of application of R_2. The moment of the load W, tending to cause rotation to the left is $-Wb$, and the moment of reaction R_1 tending to cause rotation to the right is $R_1 l$.

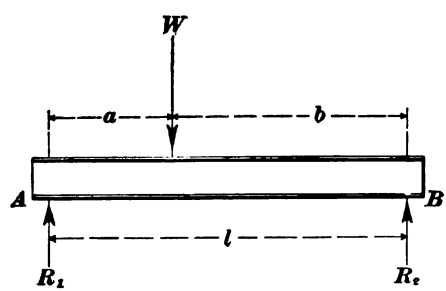


FIG. 234.

But the algebraic sum of these two moments must equal zero. Therefore, $R_1 l - Wb = 0$; transposing, $R_1 l = Wb$, and $R_1 = \frac{Wb}{l}$. In like manner, by taking moments about

A, $R_2 l - Wa = 0$, and $R_2 = \frac{Wa}{l}$. By Art. **1140,** the sum of the two reactions must equal the load; this is found to be the case, for $\frac{Wa}{l} + \frac{Wb}{l} = W\frac{a+b}{l} = W\frac{l}{l} = W$.

EXAMPLE.—A load of 24,000 pounds is supported upon a span $AB = 30$ feet, and is situated at a distance of 10 feet from A. What are the reactions at A and B, respectively?

SOLUTION.—If the load is at a distance of 10 feet from A, it is $30 - 10 = 20$ feet from B. The reaction at $A = 24{,}000 \times \frac{20}{30} = 16{,}000$ lb. Ans. The reaction at $B = 24{,}000 \times \frac{10}{30} = 8{,}000$ lb. Ans. The sum of the reactions $= 16{,}000 + 8{,}000 = 24{,}000 =$ the load. Art. **1140.**

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. A load of 16,000 pounds is supported upon a span $AB = 40$ feet, and is situated at a distance of 15 feet from A. What are the reactions at A and B, respectively? Ans. 10,000 lb. at A, and 6,000 lb. at B.

2. A weight of 18,000 pounds is situated at a distance of 12 feet from the end B of a span $AB = 90$ feet. What are the reactions at A and B, respectively? Ans. 2,400 lb. and 15,600 lb.

3. A load of 20,000 pounds is situated at a distance of 15 feet from the end B of a span $AB = 75$ feet. What are the reactions at A and B, respectively? Ans. 4,000 lb. and 16,000 lb.

1144. Any Number of Loads Upon the Span.

The principle is applied in exactly the same manner when the span is loaded with any number of loads.

ILLUSTRATION.—In Fig. 235, the beam is shown loaded with four loads, W_1, W_2, W_3, and W_4. In this figure, the loads are represented as though they were equal, and the distances a, b, c, d, and e, are equal; but the principle is exactly the same whether the loads and distances are equal or unequal. If moments are taken about the point of application of R_2, the moment of R_1 will be positive and the moments of the loads will be negative. Then,

$$R_1 l - W_1(b+c+d+e) - W_2(c+d+e) - W_3(d+e) - W_4 e = 0;$$

transposing,

$$R_1 l = W_1(b+c+d+e) + W_2(c+d+e) + W_3(d+e) + W_4 e;$$

dividing by l,

$$R_1 = \frac{W_1(b+c+d+e) + W_2(c+d+e) + W_3(d+e) + W_4 e}{l}.$$

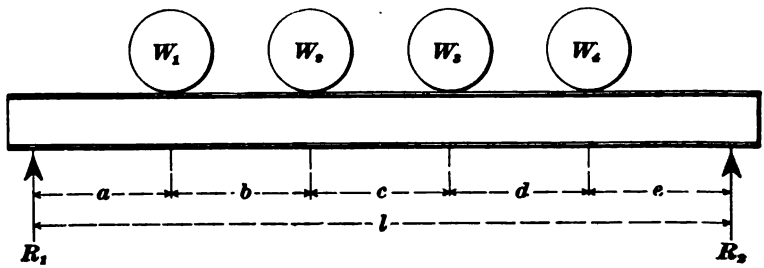


FIG. 235.

Taking moments about R_1,

$$-R_2 l + W_1 a + W_2(a+b) + W_3(a+b+c) + W_4(a+b+c+d) = 0,$$

and

$$R_2 = \frac{W_1 a + W_2(a+b) + W_3(a+b+c) + W_4(a+b+c+d)}{l}.$$

If W_1 is removed and the beam loaded with W_2, W_3, and W_4 only, the values of the reactions are:

$$R_1 = \frac{W_2(c+d+e) + W_3(d+e) + W_4 e}{l}, \text{ and}$$

$$R_2 = \frac{W_2(a+b) + W_3(a+b+c) + W_4(a+b+c+d)}{l}.$$

1145. Taking again the values of R_1 and R_2 found in Art. **1143,** we have

$$R_1 : R_2 :: \frac{Wb}{l} : \frac{Wa}{l}.$$

Or, $R_1 : R_2 :: b : a$.

Therefore,

Any load situated between its two supports is transferred to them in amounts inversely proportional to its distances from them.

Also, since $R_1 = \frac{Wb}{l}$, and $R_2 = \frac{Wa}{l}$,

Each reaction equals the load multiplied by the distance from the load to the opposite reaction and divided by the length of the span.

Finally, by observing the values of R_1 and R_2 in Art. **1144,**

The reaction at either end of the span from any number of loads equals the sum of the reactions at the same point from the several separate loads.

1146. Special Cases.—If, as indicated in Fig. 235, $a = b = c = d = e = p$, then, $a + b + c + d + e = 5p = l$, and $\frac{a}{l} = \frac{1p}{5p} = \frac{1}{5}$, $\frac{a+b}{l} = \frac{2p}{5p} = \frac{2}{5}$, etc. Therefore, with all loads upon the span,

$$R_1 = W_1 \frac{b+c+d+e}{l} + W_2 \frac{c+d+e}{l} + W_3 \frac{d+e}{l} + W_4 \frac{e}{l};$$

$$\text{or, } R_1 = \tfrac{4}{5} W_1 + \tfrac{3}{5} W_2 + \tfrac{2}{5} W_3 + \tfrac{1}{5} W_4.$$

$$R_2 = W_1 \frac{a}{l} + W_2 \frac{a+b}{l} + W_3 \frac{a+b+c}{l} + W_4 \frac{a+b+c+d}{l};$$

$$\text{or, } R_2 = \tfrac{1}{5} W_1 + \tfrac{2}{5} W_2 + \tfrac{3}{5} W_3 + \tfrac{4}{5} W_4.$$

Again, if $W_1 = W_2 = W_3 = W_4 = W$, then $R_1 = (\frac{4}{5} + \frac{3}{5} + \frac{2}{5} + \frac{1}{5})\, W = 2W$, and $R_2 = (\frac{1}{5} + \frac{2}{5} + \frac{3}{5} + \frac{4}{5})\, W = 2W$. In this case, as in all cases, the sum of the reactions equals the sum of the loads: $2W + 2W = 4W$.

The conditions of equal loads and equal distances are very common in such structures as bridges and roof trusses. For any system of loads, the reactions are computed for those

loads which are upon the structure in each condition of loading for which the reaction is required.

NOTE.—When computing moments or reactions, it is well, for the sake of clearness, to make a rough sketch and mark the loads and distances upon it.

EXAMPLE.—If, in Fig. 235, the load $W_1 = W_2 = W_3 = W_4 = 15{,}000$ pounds, and $a = b = c = d = e = 20$ feet $= \frac{1}{5}\ l$, what are the values of R_1 and R_2, respectively?

SOLUTION.—$R_1 = (\frac{4}{5} + \frac{3}{5} + \frac{2}{5} + \frac{1}{5})\,15{,}000 = \frac{10}{5} \times 15{,}000 = 30{,}000$ lb., and $R_2 = (\frac{1}{5} + \frac{2}{5} + \frac{3}{5} + \frac{4}{5})\,15{,}000 = \frac{10}{5} \times 15{,}000 = 30{,}000$ lb.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. Assuming the loads and distances to be the same as in the preceding example, but that the load W_1 is removed, and the span loaded only with W_2, W_3, and W_4, what are the values of R_1 and R_2, respectively? Ans. 18,000 lb. and 27,000 lb.

2. With loads and distances the same, but with W_2 also removed, and the span loaded with W_3 and W_4 only, what are the values of R_1 and R_2, respectively? Ans. 9,000 lb. and 21,000 lb.

3. With loads and distances the same, but with W_3 also removed, and the span loaded with W_4 only, what are the values of R_1 and R_2, respectively? Ans. 3,000 lb. and 12,000 lb.

4. With distances the same, but with the loads $W_1 = 10{,}000$ lb., $W_2 = 20{,}000$ lb., $W_3 = 30{,}000$ lb., and $W_4 = 40{,}000$ lb., what are the values of R_1 and R_2, respectively?

$$\text{Ans.}\begin{cases} R_1 = 8{,}000 + 12{,}000 + 12{,}000 + 8{,}000 = 40{,}000 \text{ lb.} \\ R_2 = 2{,}000 + 8{,}000 + 18{,}000 + 32{,}000 = 60{,}000 \text{ lb.} \end{cases}$$

5. With loads and distances as in the preceding example, what is the bending moment M at W_1? At W_2? At W_3? At W_4?

$$\text{Ans.}\begin{cases} \text{At } W_1,\ M = 800{,}000 \text{ ft.-lb.} \\ \text{At } W_2,\ M = 1{,}400{,}000 \text{ ft.-lb.} \\ \text{At } W_3,\ M = 1{,}600{,}000 \text{ ft.-lb.} \\ \text{At } W_4,\ M = 1{,}200{,}000 \text{ ft.-lb.} \end{cases}$$

6. With loads and distances the same as in the last two examples, but with W_1 removed, and the span loaded with W_2, W_3, and W_4 only, what are the values of R_1 and R_2, respectively?

$$\text{Ans.}\begin{cases} R_1 = 32{,}000 \text{ lb.} \\ R_2 = 58{,}000 \text{ lb.} \end{cases}$$

7. With all conditions the same as in the preceding example, what is the bending moment M at the position previously occupied by W_1? At W_2? At W_3? At W_4?

Ans. $\begin{cases} \text{At } W_1, & M = 640{,}000 \text{ ft.-lb.} \\ \text{At } W_2, & M = 1{,}280{,}000 \text{ ft.-lb.} \\ \text{At } W_3, & M = 1{,}520{,}000 \text{ ft.-lb.} \\ \text{At } W_4, & M = 1{,}160{,}000 \text{ ft.-lb.} \end{cases}$

1147. In the preceding articles it has been shown that the values of the reactions may be determined by very simple applications of the principle of moments; the use of these values, when obtained, will now be shown. For a structure, the magnitudes of the loads are either known or assumed, and the points of application of the loads are known; when the values of the reactions from the given loads are determined, all the *external* forces which act upon the structure are known, and the values of the *internal* forces or stresses can usually be determined by drawing the system of force polygons, i. e., the stress diagram, for the structure. All the internal forces which act at the point of application of each external force are unknown, and as the force polygon can only be drawn when not more than two quantities are unknown (Art. **1109**), it is necessary to begin the stress diagram by drawing the force polygon for a joint at which not more than two internal forces act; that is, at a joint at which not more than two members meet. The point of application of a reaction usually fulfils this requirement; it is customary to begin with the left reaction.

1148. Illustration.—Fig. 236 represents a frame or truss of the form known as a **Warren girder**; it is a form of truss often used for bridges. The distance between the reactions, or, in the usual language, the **length of span,** is assumed to be 60 feet, and is divided into four equal portions, or **panels,** B, E, H, and K, each 15 feet in length, as shown in the figure. The loads W_1, W_2, and W_3 are supported, respectively, at the joints *3*, *5*, and *7* (called **panel points**).

It is assumed that $W_1 = 4$ tons, $W_2 = 3$ tons, and $W_3 = 2$ tons. Therefore (Art. **1144**), the left reaction

$$R_1 = \frac{4 \times 45 + 3 \times 30 + 2 \times 15}{60} = 5 \text{ tons,}$$

$$\text{and } R_2 = \frac{4 \times 15 + 3 \times 30 + 2 \times 45}{60} = 4 \text{ tons.}$$

(*a*), Fig. 236, is the stress diagram, drawn to a scale of 4

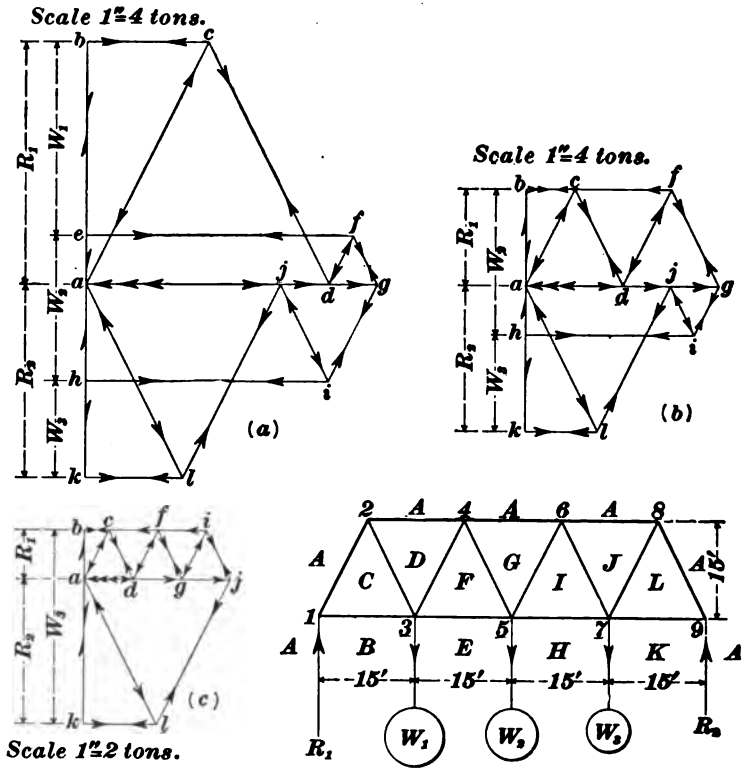


FIG. 236.

tons to the inch, by means of which are determined the internal forces or stresses in all the members of the truss for this system of loads. By the aid of the system of notation used, it will be readily understood and will require but little explanation. Each line upon which two full arrow-heads

are marked represents the stress in that member of the truss which is situated between the two corresponding letters in the diagram of the truss. This stress diagram is constructed as follows:

Draw a vertical line $b\ k$; beginning at the *top*, lay off downwards, the loads $W_1 = B\ E = b\ e$, $W_2 = E\ H = e\ h$, and $W_3 = H\ K = h\ k$ to the scale used; the loads are laid off *downwards*, because they act downwards upon the truss, and they are taken *in order*, passing from left to right across the truss. Next, the reactions are laid off upon the same line, but the order of the operation is *reversed;* beginning at the *bottom* of the line, lay off the reactions *upwards* in the *reverse order*, to the same scale, or passing across the truss from right to left; that is, beginning at k, lay off upwards $R_2 = K\ A = k\ a$, and $R_1 = A\ B = a\ b$. It is evident that $b\ e\ h\ k\ a\ b$ is the *force polygon* for the external forces which act upon the truss; since, through the medium of the truss, these forces are in equilibrium, they form a closed polygon, and, as the forces are all vertical, the polygon is a straight line. Half arrow-heads are marked upon the lines to indicate the directions of the forces. The line $k\ b$, which represents the sum of the reactions, equals the line $b\ k$, which represents the sum of the loads (Art. **1140**), or the algebraic sum of these vertical forces is zero. (Art. **1141.**) The line $b\ k$ is called the **load line.** (Art. **1121.**)

Of the forces which act upon joint *1*, all conditions are known except two, the stresses in $B\ C$ and $C\ A$, the lines of action of the stresses being known; therefore, the stress diagram may be begun by drawing the force polygon for the forces which act upon this joint. R_1 is represented by the line $a\ b$; therefore, from b and a draw $b\ c$ and $a\ c$ parallel, respectively, to $B\ C$ and $A\ C$, and intersecting at c. Since the arrow-head on $a\ b$ points from a towards b, pass the pencil around the polygon from a to b, then to c, and back to a, and mark the arrow-heads in the direction in which the pencil moves. These arrow-heads indicate the sense of each stress with reference *to the joint considered*, that is, joint *1*. On $b\ c$ the arrow-head is nearer b, and on

c a it is nearer *a*, because these ends of the lines correspond to the point of application of the respective forces, or, in other words, to the ends of the members *B C* and *C A*, which connect at this joint.

Of the forces which act upon joint *2*, the magnitude of one force, the stress in *A C*, has been determined. As explained in Art. **1120,** it is evident that the stress in this member acts upon joint *2* in a direction opposite to that in which it acts upon joint *1*. Therefore, an additional arrow-head is marked on *a c* in a reversed position and direction, so that it will point from *a* towards *c*; *a d* and *c d* are drawn parallel to *A D* and *C D*, respectively, and the arrow-heads marked on them, starting in the direction of the *reversed* arrow-head on *a c*.

Of the forces which act upon joint *3*, the magnitudes of two forces, the stresses in *B C* and *C D*, have been determined, and the magnitude of the external force W_1, or *B E*, is known; as the lines of action of all the forces are known, but two conditions remain unknown, namely: the magnitudes of the stresses in *E F* and *F D*. To determine these, mark additional arrow-heads in reversed positions and directions on *d c* and *c b*; trace *b e* equal to *W*, and from *e* and *d* draw *e f* and *d f* parallel, respectively, to the members *E F* and *D F*; they intersect at *f*. (See Art. **1113.**) Mark the arrow-heads as usual. For joint *4*, additional arrow-heads are marked in reversed positions and directions on *a d* and *d f*, and *f g* and *a g*, drawn parallel to *F G* and *A G*, respectively.

It is to be noticed that *g a*, not *g d*, represents the stress in *G A*. As has been repeatedly explained, the stress in any member is given by that line of the stress diagram situated between the same two letters between which the member is situated in the diagram of the truss.

For joint *5*, the polygon *g f e h i g* is drawn; for joint *6*, the polygon *a g i j a* is drawn; for joint *7*, the polygon *j i h k l j* is drawn; for joint *8*, the triangle *a j l a* is drawn, and for the last joint *9*, the triangle *a l k a* is drawn, completing the diagram. If the work has been done correctly, the

line $k\ a$ will equal the reaction R_2 $(= K\ A) = 4$ tons $= 1$ inch, by the same scale (4 tons to the inch) by which the line $a\ b$ was made equal to R_1.

Each line in the stress diagram which represents stress in a member of the truss forms a side of *two* polygons, because each member is connected at *two* joints.

1149. The correspondence of the large letters on the truss with the small ones in the force polygons is of great assistance; by noticing it carefully, the student will have no difficulty in tracing and checking the stress diagram. Consider, for instance, joint *6*, the polygon for which is $a\ g\ i\ j\ a$. Notice that the corresponding letters $A\ G\ I\ J\ A$, on the truss, follow one another around the joint in such a manner that in passing from one to another we move in a direction opposite to that in which the hands of a clock move, and by naming them all we go around an entire circle in the same direction, passing from A to G, from G to I, from I to J, etc. *This gives the directions of the corresponding lines in the diagram for the given joint.* Thus, in joint *6*, the lines go from a to g, from g to i, from i to j, from j to a, following the order $A\ G\ I\ J\ A$. This applies to any joint. The lines, of course, are not actually *drawn* in the order given; $j\ a$ is not drawn from j to a, because the point j is not known; to locate it, a line is drawn from i parallel to $I\ J$, and another from a parallel to $A\ J$; their intersection gives the point j; but the direction of the stress is from j to a, according to the rule given above.

If from any cause it should be necessary to draw the first force polygon so that the direction of the letters is from right to left around the joint, all of the others must also be drawn in this order.

1150. If the load W_1 is removed from joint *3*, and the loads W_2 and W_3 are allowed to remain at joints *5* and *7*, then R_1 will equal $\frac{3 \times 30 + 2 \times 15}{60} = 2$ tons, and R_2 will equal $\frac{3 \times 30 + 2 \times 45}{60} = 3$ tons. The diagram (*b*), Fig. 236,

is the stress diagram for this condition of loading. For joint *1*, the line $a\,b$ is drawn equal and parallel to R_1 ($= A\,B$), and $b\,c$ and $a\,c$ drawn parallel to $B\,C$ and $A\,C$, respectively; the directions of the arrow-heads on $b\,c$ and $a\,c$ are marked to correspond with that on $a\,b$, whose direction is known. For joint *2*, an additional arrow-head is marked in the opposite position and direction on line $a\,c$, and the triangle $a\,c\,d\,a$ is completed as usual. For joint *3*, when starting at d, the reversed arrow-heads have been marked on lines $d\,c$ and $c\,b$; the next line to be drawn would usually be a line $b\,e$ to represent the load W_1; but as W_1 has been removed, there is no force $B\,E$ acting at this joint, and, consequently, there is no line $b\,e$ to be drawn. The space formerly denoted by E is now denoted by B, and, instead of the member $E\,F$, we have the member $B\,F$. From b draw $b\,f$ parallel to $B\,F$, and from d draw $d\,f$ parallel to $D\,F$; these lines give the stresses in $B\,F$ (or $E\,F$) and $D\,F$. The student will follow through in detail the process of drawing the force polygons for the remaining joints; it is substantially the same as in (*a*), Fig. 236, and by the aid of the notation used will be readily understood.

If (*b*), Fig. 236, be compared with (*a*), Fig. 236, one fact is very noticeable: after removing the load W_1, which is the heaviest of the three loads, it is found that the stresses in the members $D\,F$ and $F\,G$ [(*b*), Fig. 236] are *greater* than when W_1 was upon the truss. This would be generally true of the stresses in these members with reference to the load W_1; it is characteristic regarding the positions of loads for maximum stress, and will be noticed again in the analysis of stresses.

1151. At (*c*), Fig. 236, is shown a stress diagram for the truss, loaded with the load W_3 only, the loads W_1 and W_2 both being removed. The entire space between R_1 and W_3 is now denoted by B, and, instead of the members $B\,C$, $E\,F$, and $H\,I$, we have $B\,C$, $B\,F$, and $B\,I$. For clearness this diagram is drawn to a larger scale, one of 2 tons to the inch. It will need no special explanation. The feature

to be specially noticed is that by removing the load W_1 the *character* of the stresses in the members $G\,I$ and $I\,J$ is *reversed.* In (*a*) and (*b*), Fig. 236, the character of the stress in the member $G\,I$, as indicated by the arrows marked upon the line $g\,i$, is *tension*, while in (*c*), Fig. 236, the arrows marked upon the line $g\,i$ indicate that the stress is *compression.* Also, in (*a*) and (*b*), Fig. 236, the arrows upon the line $i\,j$ indicate that the stress in the member $I\,J$ is *compression*, while in (*c*) the arrows upon the line $i\,j$ indicate that the stress is *tension.*

1152. The following is a tabulation of the stresses in the members of the truss, as scaled from the stress diagrams (*a*), (*b*), and (*c*), Fig. 236, for the three conditions of loading explained above. They are expressed in tons:

Member.	(*a*)	(*b*)	(*c*)
$A\,C$	+ 5.59	+ 2.24	+ 0.56
$C\,D$	− 5.59	− 2.24	− 0.56
$D\,F$	+ 1.12	+ 2.24	+ 0.56
$F\,G$	− 1.12	− 2.24	− 0.56
$G\,I$	− 2.24	− 1.12	+ 0.56
$I\,J$	+ 2.24	+ 1.12	− 0.56
$J\,L$	− 4.47	− 3.35	− 1.68
$L\,A$	+ 4.47	+ 3.35	+ 1.68
$B\,C$	− 2.50	− 1.00	− 0.25
$E\,F$	− 5.50	− 3.00	− 0.75
$H\,I$	− 5.00	− 3.50	− 1.25
$K\,L$	− 2.00	− 1.50	− 0.75
$A\,D$	+ 5.00	+ 2.00	+ 0.50
$A\,G$	+ 6.00	+ 4.00	+ 1.00
$A\,J$	+ 4.00	+ 3.00	+ 1.50

When a stress is preceded by a + sign, the sign indicates that the stress is *compression*, and when preceded by a − sign, the sign indicates that the stress is *tension.* The signs are sometimes written after the stresses; when used with stresses they have no other meaning.

THE EQUILIBRIUM POLYGON.

1153. In Arts. **1107** and **1108,** it was shown that, by means of the force polygon, either the equilibrant or the resultant of any number of concurring forces can be found.

A method of finding the magnitude, direction, and line of action of either the equilibrant or the resultant of any number of forces, whose lines of action do not meet at a common point, will now be given. The forces are considered as acting in the same plane.

ILLUSTRATION.—In Fig. 237 three forces of 100, 40, and 60 pounds, respectively, are represented by the lines F_1, F_2,

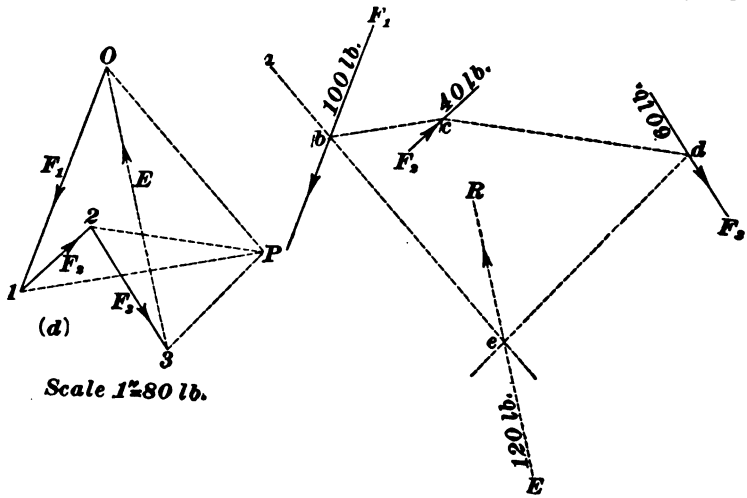


FIG. 237.

and F_3; their magnitudes are represented by the lengths, and their lines of action located, by the positions of the respective lines, while the sense of each force is indicated by an arrow-head marked upon the corresponding line. For these forces, construct the force polygon *0-1-2-3-0*, by drawing end to end the lines *0-1*, *1-2*, and *2-3*, respectively, parallel and equal to F_1, F_2, F_3, and complete the polygon by drawing the closing line *3-0*. The polygon is drawn in the figure to a scale of 80 pounds to the inch. The closing line = 120 pounds, if drawn in the direction *3-0*, represents

in magnitude and direction the equilibrant of the forces F_1, F_2, F_3, and, if drawn in the opposite direction *0-3*, it represents the resultant of those forces [(*d*), Art. **1107**; also, (*a*) and (*b*), Art. **1108**]; but the *position* of the line along which the equilibrant or resultant must act is still unknown. To find the line of action of the equilibrant and resultant, proceed as follows:

Choose *any* point, as *P*, and draw the radial lines *P 0*, *P 1*, *P 2*, and *P 3*. Through any point, as *b*, on the line of action of the force F_1 (represented also by *0-1*) draw a line *a b e* of indefinite length and parallel to *P 0*; also, through the same point, draw a line *b c* parallel to *P 1* and intersecting the line of action of the force F_2 at *c*.

The line *b c* is drawn between the lines of action of F_1 and F_2, because the line *P 1*, to which *b c* is drawn parallel, is drawn from *P* to the point of intersection *1* of the line *0-1*, which represents F_1, and the line *1-2*, which represents F_2. Likewise, through *c*, draw a line *c d* parallel to *P 2*, intersecting the line of action of the force F_3 at *d*. Finally, through *d*, draw a line *d e* parallel to *P 3*, intersecting at *e* the line *b e* which was drawn parallel to *P 0*. The line of action of the equilibrant, or of the resultant, of the forces F_1, F_2, and F_3, must pass through the point *e*; this point is the intersection of the lines *b e* and *d e*, which are drawn parallel to the lines *P 0* and *P 3*. These latter lines are drawn from *P* to the extremities of the line *0-3*, which represents the equilibrant, or the resultant in the force polygon *0-1-2-3-0*.

If, through the point *e*, the line *E R* is drawn equal and parallel to *3-0*, it will represent the equilibrant, or, if the line *R E* is drawn in the opposite direction from *R* towards *E*, it will represent the resultant of the forces F_1, F_2, and F_3; the equilibrant and resultant are exactly equal and opposite.

This method of finding the magnitude, direction, and position of the equilibrant and resultant is applicable to any number of forces acting in the same plane. It may also be extended so as to apply to forces acting in different planes, but such application of the method will not here be considered.

1154. In (*d*), Fig. 237, the point *P* is called the **pole;** the lines *P 0*, *P 1*, *P 2*, and *P 3*, which join the pole with the vertexes of the force polygon, are called the **rays,** or **strings.** The complete figure, composed of the force polygon, the pole, and the rays, is called the **force diagram.** The polygon *b c d e b*, Fig. 237, which represents a system of intervening or connecting forces through the medium of which the system of original forces and their equilibrant may be held in equilibrium, is called the **equilibrium polygon.** A line of the equilibrium polygon included between the lines of action of two forces, as the line *b c* or *c d*, etc., is sometimes called a **line of resistance.**

As the pole *P* may be taken anywhere, any number of force diagrams, and, consequently, any number of equilibrium polygons, may be drawn, each of which will give the same value and locate the same line of action for the equilibrant (or for the resultant). To test the accuracy of the work, take a new position for the pole and proceed as before. If the work has been correctly done, the first and last lines of the equilibrium polygon, *b e* and *d e*, which are drawn respectively parallel to *P 0* and *P 3*, the first and last rays of the force diagram, will intersect somewhere on the line of action of the equilibrant and resultant, or *E R*, produced if necessary.

1155. The equilibrium polygon gives an easy method of resolving a force into two components.

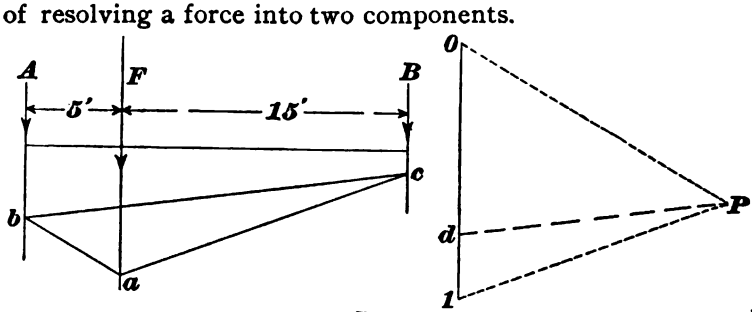


FIG. 238.

In Fig. 238, let $F = 16$ pounds be the force, and let it be required to resolve it into two *parallel* components *A* and

B, at distances, respectively, of 5 feet and 15 feet from F. The magnitudes of A and B are required. Draw *0-1* to represent $F = 16$ pounds; choose any convenient pole P and draw the rays $P0$ and $P1$. Take any point, a on F, and draw $a\,b$ parallel to $P\,0$, intersecting A at b, and $a\,c$ parallel to $P\,1$, intersecting B at c. Join b and c by the line $b\,c$. Through the pole P, draw Pd parallel to $b\,c$, intersecting *0-1* at d. Then, $0\,d$ is the magnitude of A measured with the scale to which *0-1* was drawn, and $d\,1$ is the magnitude of B measured with the same scale.

The operations may be checked by the method of moments. The process is similar to that for finding the reactions at A and B due to a load F in a corresponding position on the space $A\,B$; the components A and B will be equal in magnitude, though opposite in direction, to the respective reactions. Thus, taking moments about A, we have, $B \times 20 = F \times 5$, or $B = \frac{16 \times 5}{20} = 4$, and $A = F - B = 12$, since $A + B = F$; or, taking moments about B, $A \times 20 = F \times 15$; or, $A = \frac{16 \times 15}{20} = 12$, as before. The student should familiarize himself with all these methods and the principles involved.

1156. If the components are not parallel to the given force, they must intersect its line of action in a common point.

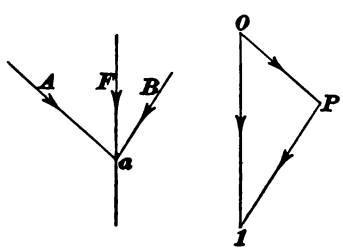


FIG. 239.

In Fig. 239, let $F = 16$ pounds be the force. It is required to resolve it into two components, A and B, intersecting at a, as shown. Draw *0-1* to some convenient scale to represent 16 pounds; then draw $1\,P$ and $0\,P$ parallel to A and B; $0\,P$ and $P1$ are the values of the components both in magnitude and direction.

EXAMPLE.—Let F_1, F_2, F_3, F_4, and F_5 (Fig. 240) be five forces whose magnitudes are 7, 10, 5, 12, and 15 pounds, respectively. It is required

to find their resultant and to resolve this resultant into two components parallel to it and passing through the points a and b.

SOLUTION.—Choose any point, 0, and draw $0\text{-}1$ parallel and equal to F_1, $1\text{-}2$ parallel and equal to F_2, etc.; $0\text{-}5$ will be the value of the resultant, and its direction will be from 0 to 5, opposed to the other forces acting around the polygon. Choose a pole P, and complete the force diagram. Choose a point c on F_1, and draw the equilibrium polygon $c\,d\,e\,f\,g\,h\,c$; the intersection of $c\,h$, parallel to $P\,0$, and $g\,h$, parallel to $P\,5$, gives a point h on the resultant R. Through h, draw R parallel

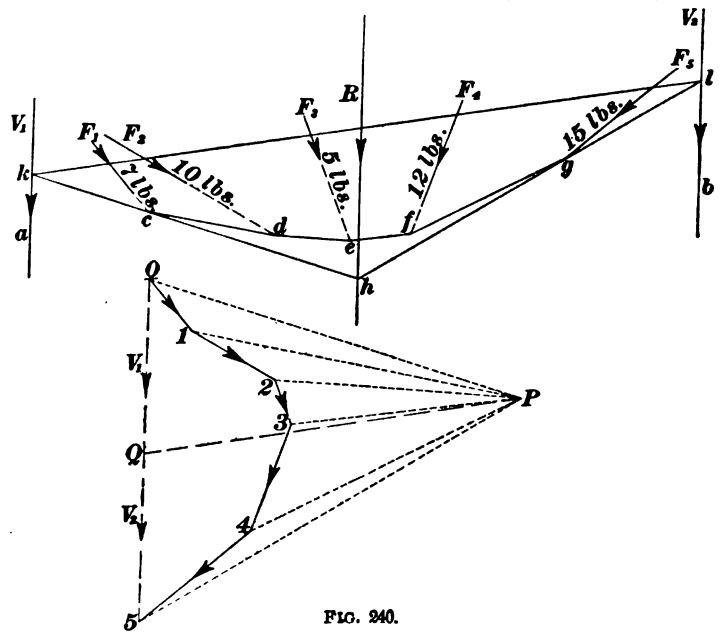


FIG. 240.

to $0\text{-}5$, and it will be the position of the line of action of the resultant of the five forces. The components must pass through the points a and b, according to the conditions; hence, draw V_1 and V_2 parallel to R through a and b. Since $0\text{-}5$ represents the magnitude of R, draw $h\,k$ and $h\,l$ parallel to $P\,0$ and $P\,5$ (they, of course, coincide with $c\,h$ and $g\,h$, since the same pole P is used), intersecting V_1 and V_2 in k and l. Join k and l, and draw $P\,Q$ parallel to $k\,l$. Then $0\,Q = V_1$ and $Q\,5 = V_2$.

1157. By the principle explained in the preceding article, the reactions from any system of loads may be found. This will be shown by an example.

EXAMPLE.—Let R_1 be the reaction of the left support, and R_2 the reaction of the right support; let the distance between the two supports be 14 feet. Suppose that loads of 50, 80, 100, 70, and 30 pounds are supported at distances from the left support equal to 2, 5, 8, 10, and 12½ feet, respectively. The reactions of the supports are required, neglecting the weight of the beam. See Fig. 241.

SOLUTION.—The reactions may be found graphically by resolving the resultant of the loads, which in this case acts vertically downwards, into two parallel components passing through the points of support.

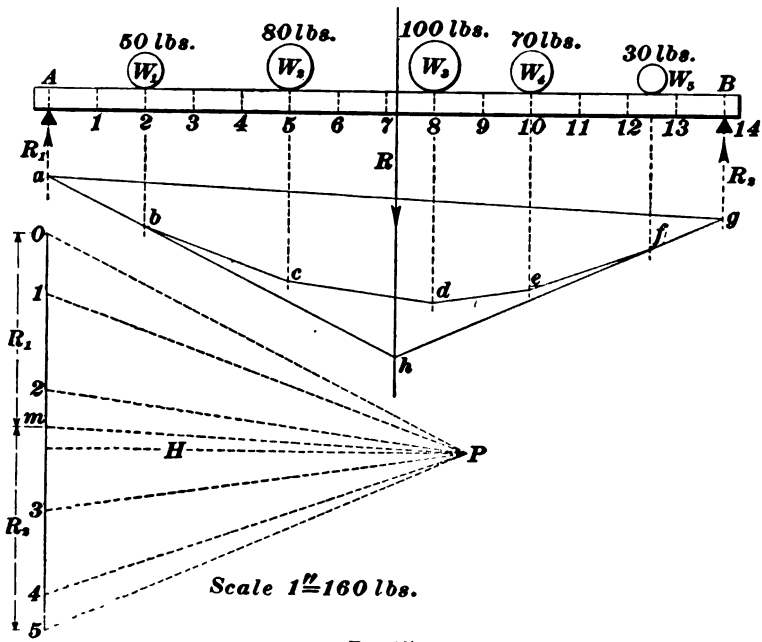


FIG. 241.

The reactions are equal and opposite to the components. Draw the beam to some convenient scale and locate the loads, as shown in the figure. Construct the force diagram, making *0-1* = 50 pounds, *1-2* = 80 pounds, etc., the line *0-5* representing the force polygon. Choose a point *b* on the line of action of the force W_1, and draw the equilibrium polygon *a b c d e f g a*; *a b* and *f g* intersect in *h*, the point through which the resultant *R* must pass. By drawing *P m* parallel to the closing line *a g* of the equilibrium polygon, the resultant *0-5* is resolved into the components *0 m* and *m 5*, which are equal and opposite to the reactions R_1 and R_2, respectively.

Measuring *0 m* and *m 5*, with the same scale that was used to lay off *0-5*, it is found that $R_1 = 160$ pounds, and $R_2 = 170$ pounds. By calculation, $R_1 = 160.4$ pounds, and $R_2 = 169.6$ pounds, which shows that the graphical method is sufficiently accurate for all practical purposes. The larger the scale used, the more accurate will be the results.

1158. In case it had not been desired for any purpose to ascertain the line of action of the resultant (or equilibrant), but simply to determine the values of the reactions

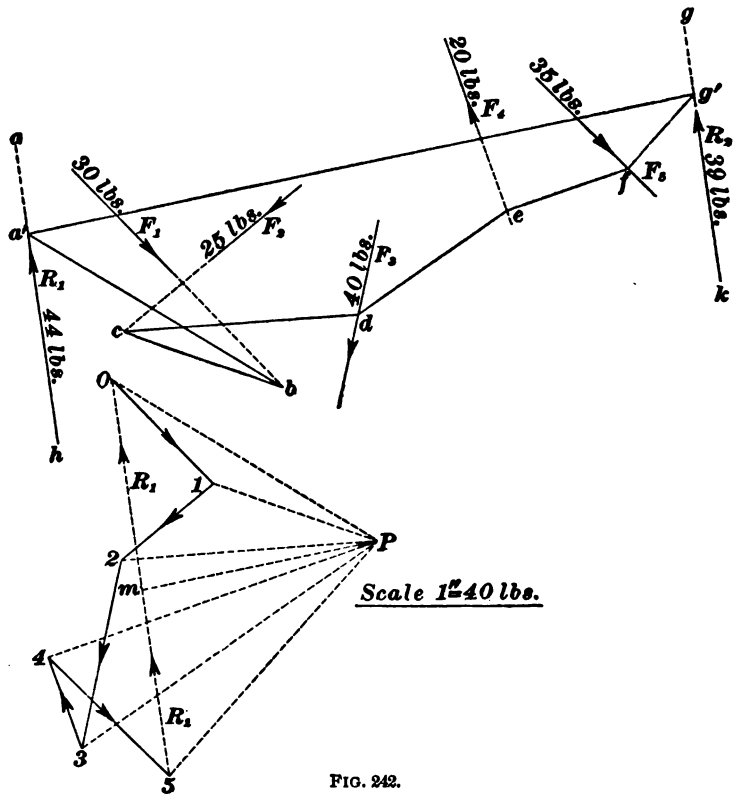


FIG. 242.

R_1 and R_2, which, when applied at the points A and B, would support or equilibrate the loads, the portions *b h* and *f h* of the lines *a h* and *g h* could have been omitted. The figure *a b c d e f g a* would then be the equilibrium polygon; the force diagram would have been the same.

The method of ascertaining the reactions without locating the line of action of the equilibrant and resultant will be illustrated by a very general

EXAMPLE.—The system of forces $F_1 = 30$ lb., $F_2 = 25$ lb., $F_3 = 40$ lb., $F_4 = 20$ lb., and $F_5 = 35$ lb. have the directions and positions shown in Fig. 242. It is desired to determine the magnitudes and directions of the reactions R_1 and R_2, which, if applied at a and g, respectively, will equilibrate the system of original forces.

SOLUTION.—Construct the force polygon *0-1-2-3-4-5-0*; the closing line *5-0* represents the equilibrant of the original forces, but its position need not be found. Choose any position for the pole P and draw the rays $P\,0$, $P\,1$, $P\,2$, $P\,3$, $P\,4$, and $P\,5$. Through a and g, which are to be the points of application of the reactions, draw the lines $a\,h$ and $g\,k$ of indefinite length and parallel to *5-0*. From a, or from some point on $a\,h$, as a', draw $a'\,b$ parallel to $P\,0$, intersecting the line of action of the force F_1 (produced as far as necessary) at b; from b, draw $b\,c$ parallel to $P\,1$, intersecting the line of action of F_2 at c; from c, draw $c\,d$ parallel to $P\,2$, intersecting the line of action at F_3 at d; from d, draw $d\,e$ parallel to $P\,3$; from e, draw $e\,f$ parallel to $P\,4$, and from f draw $f\,g'$ parallel to $P\,5$, intersecting the line $g\,k$ at g'. Draw $g'\,a'$, and through P draw $P\,m$ parallel to it, intersecting *0-5* at m; $m\,0 = R_1 = 44$ pounds, and $5\,m = R_2 = 39$ pounds. The line $g'\,a'$ is called the **closing line** of the equilibrium polygon.

EXAMPLES.—Solve by the graphical method the examples given in Art. **1143.**

GRAPHICAL EXPRESSION FOR MOMENTS.

1159. Culmann's Principle.—The moment of a single force about any point may be expressed and determined graphically in the following manner:

EXAMPLE.—See Fig. 243. Let $F = 10$ pounds represent a force which tends to cause rotation about the point c as a center. The lever arm of the moment is $f\,c = 7\frac{1}{2}$ feet.

It is desired to ascertain the moment of F about c.

SOLUTION.—Draw *0-1* parallel to F and equal to 10 pounds to any convenient scale. Choose any point P as the pole, and draw the rays $P\,0$ and $P\,1$; also, draw $P\,2$ perpendicular to *0-1*. Through any point, as b, on F, draw the lines $b\,a$ and $b\,g$ parallel, respectively, to $P\,0$ and $P\,1$; the lines $b\,a$ and $b\,g$ correspond to the lines $e\,b$ and $e\,d$ of the equilibrium polygon, Fig. 237, through the intersection of which the resultant must pass, the force F, in the present case, corresponding to the resultant in Fig. 237. Prolong $a\,b$, and through c draw $c\,e$ parallel

to F, intersecting $b\,g$ and $a\,b$ in d and e. By geometry it can be shown that $0\text{-}1 \times f\,c = d\,e \times P\,2$, or, as $0\text{-}1 = F$ and $F \times f\,c$ is the

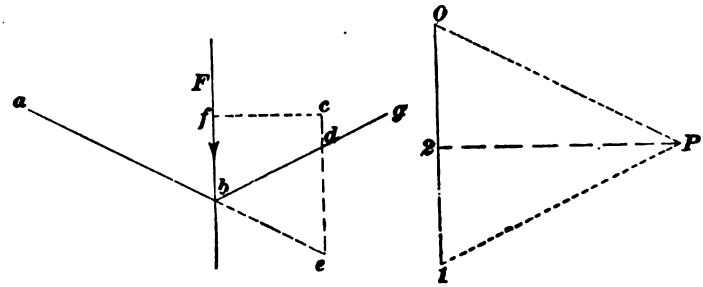


FIG. 243.

moment of F about c, the moment of F about $c = e\,d \times P\,2$, if $e\,d$ is measured to the same scale used for $f\,c$, and $P\,2$ is measured to the same scale used for $0\text{-}1$.

1160. The line $P\,2$ is called the **pole distance;** it is always drawn perpendicular to the line which represents the force; it is usually designated by the letter H, and will so be designated hereafter. The line $d\,e$, which is intercepted between the two lines which meet upon the line of action of the force (one line, as $a\,b$, being prolonged if necessary), is called the **intercept.**

In the triangle $P\,0\text{-}1$, the lines $P\,0$ and $P\,1$ represent the components of the force F in the directions $a\,b$ and $g\,b$, respectively; while the lines of action of those components are $a\,b$ and $g\,b$, meeting at b. Since $d\,e$ is limited by $g\,b$ and $a\,b$ (the latter produced), we may give the following general definition: The **intercept** of a force whose moment about a point is to be found is the segment (or portion) which the two components (produced, if necessary) cut off from a line drawn through the center of moments parallel to the direction of the force. The principle explained above may be stated as follows:

The moment of a force about any point equals the intercept with respect to that point multiplied by the pole distance.

This is known as *Culmann's Principle;* it is one of the most important facts in Graphical Statics, and should be thoroughly understood.

Since, in Fig. 243, but one force F is represented, it is evident that, in this figure, the equilibrium polygon is not complete; for the action of a single force can not produce a condition of equilibrium. The lines $a\ b$ and $g\ b$, however, may be any two lines of the equilibrium polygon which intersect upon the line of action of the force.

1161. If the principle given in the preceding article be applied to the resultant of any number of forces, it will give the resultant moment of all the forces about any given point; for the moment of the resultant of the given forces about any point will equal the resultant moment of the same forces about the same point. Culmann's principle thus becomes perfectly general, and is applicable to any number of forces.

EXAMPLE.—Let $F_1 = 20$ pounds, $F_2 = 25$ pounds, and $F_3 = 18$ pounds be three forces acting as shown in Fig. 244; it is desired to find their resultant moment about the point C.

SOLUTION.—Draw the force diagram and equilibrium polygon, and determine the position of the resultant R in the manner previously

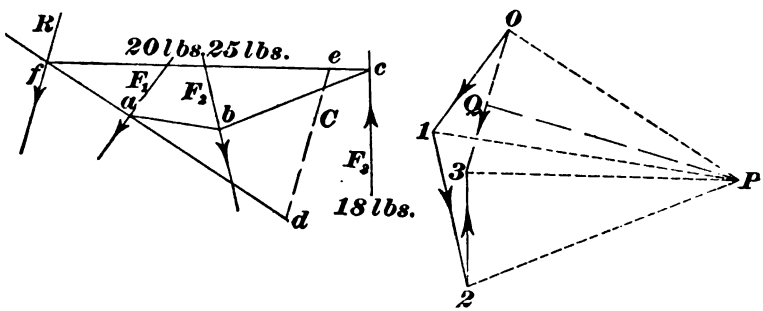


FIG. 244.

explained. Through C draw Ce parallel to R. The intercept de, multiplied by the pole distance PQ, or H, equals the resultant moment of the given forces about C.

1162. That the moment of the resultant of a system of forces about any point equals the resultant moment of the same forces about the same point will be shown by an example in which the given forces are vertical. This renders the force diagram and equilibrium polygon simpler

figures, and the representation of the moments of the forces will be readily understood.

EXAMPLE.—In Fig. 245, the forces $F_1 = 30$, $F_2 = 20$, and $F_3 = 20$ pounds are vertical. F_2 is situated between F_1 and F_3, at a distance of 50 feet from F_1, and of 30 feet from F_3, as shown in the figure. It is desired to ascertain (*a*) the moment of the resultant R about the point C, which is distant 24 feet horizontally from F_1, and (*b*) the resultant moment of the given forces about the same point.

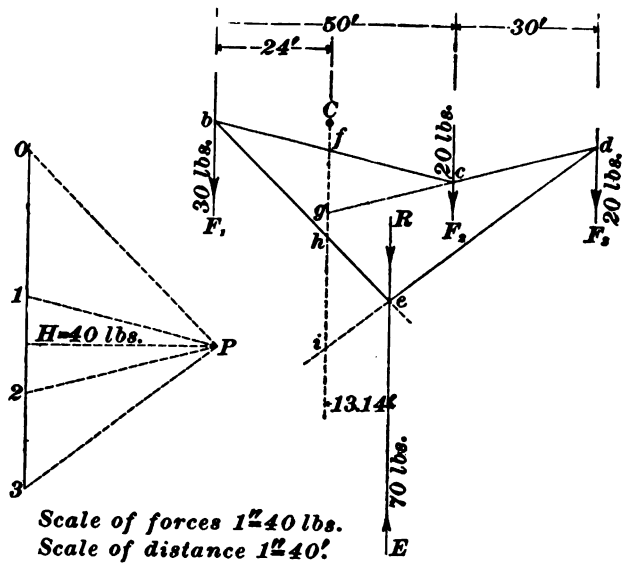


FIG. 245.

SOLUTION.—The force diagram which determines the magnitude and the equilibrium polygon which locates the position of the resultant R are constructed in the usual manner. R is found to equal 70 pounds, and its position to be at a distance of 13.14 feet horizontally to the right of C. By computation the following results are obtained:

Since the forces are parallel and have the same sense, the resultant $= 30 + 20 + 20 = 70$ pounds. Distance of F_2 from $C = 50 - 24 = 26$ ft., and of F_3, $50 + 30 - 24 = 56$ ft. If the sense of R be reversed so that it acts upwards, the four forces F_1, F_2, F_3, and R will be in equilibrium, and the sum of their moments about $C = 0$. Denoting the distance of R from C by x, $-30 \times 24 - 70x + 20 \times 26 + 20 \times 56 = 0$, or $x = 13\frac{1}{7}$ ft. Hence, the moment of R about $C = 13\frac{1}{7} \times 70 = 920$ foot-pounds.

(*a*) By Culmann's principle (Art. **1160**), the moment of R about $C = hi \times H = 23 \times 40 = 920$ foot-pounds to the right, or positive.

(*b*) By the same principle, the moment of F_2 about $C = fg \times H = 13 \times 40 = 520$ foot-pounds, and the moment of F_3 about $C = gi \times H = 28 \times 40 = 1{,}120$ foot-pounds, both positive; the moment of F_1 about $C = -fh \times H = -18 \times 40 = -720$ foot-pounds, to the left, or negative. Therefore, the resultant moment of F_1, F_2, and F_3 about $C = fg \times H + gi \times H - fh \times H = (fg + gi - fh)H = (fi - fh)H = hi \times H$, or $23 \times 40 = 920$ foot-pounds, the same as in (*a*); that is, the resultant moment of the given forces equals the moment of their resultant.

1163. If the resultant R (Fig. 245) is replaced by the equilibrant E, the moment of the latter will be equal in amount, but opposite in character, to the moment of R; that is, the moment of the equilibrant will be -920 foot-pounds. This added algebraically to the resultant moment of the given forces gives $920 - 920 = 0$, as it should be. (See Art. **1134.**)

1164. In Fig. 245, the forces F_1, F_2, F_3, and E do not meet at any common point, and, therefore, can only be in equilibrium through the medium of some structure, which is interposed between their lines of action in such a manner as to transfer the effect of each force in proper proportions to the points of application of the other forces.

If the forces F_1, F_2, and F_3 are equilibrated by the force E, then the effect of E must in some way be transferred to the points of application of F_1, F_2, and F_3, the portion of E transferred to each point of application being equal to the force acting upon that point. It is plain that this can only be accomplished through the medium of some structure in which sufficient resisting (internal) force or *strength* can develop to distribute the effect of the external forces. It is for the purpose of giving sufficient strength to the structure that the effect of the original system of forces on each of its parts is ascertained in making the design. The structure may be a bridge truss, roof truss, stand pipe, beam, column, piece of shafting, part of a steam engine, or any piece of material intended to resist force.

1165. It will be noticed that equilibrium exists between the forces represented in Fig. 245, only when the action of *all* the forces are considered. But, at any point as C,

between F_1 and F_2, the forces on one side of the point, if considered separately (as F_1 on the left), have a resultant moment which tends to cause rotation in one direction; while the forces on the opposite side of the point (as F_2, F_3, and E on the right) have a resultant moment which tends to cause rotation in the *opposite* direction. Thus the moment of F_1 (the only force on the left) about $C = -f\,h \times H$, while the resultant moment of F_2, F_3, and E (on the right) about $C = f\,g \times H + g\,i \times H - h\,i \times H = f\,h \times H$. The former moment is negative and the latter moment is positive, and, as they are thus equal and opposite, they balance each other. But, as the forces which produce these opposite moments are situated upon opposite sides of the point C, they can only balance or resist each other through the rigidity of the structure. The moment of F_1 would cause that portion of the structure at the left of C to rotate downwards or to the left, while the resultant moment of F_2, F_3, and E would cause that portion of the structure to the right of C to rotate downwards or to the right. The effect of these opposite resultant moments would be to *bend* the structure about the point C (or some point in the line $C\,i$) in much the same manner that you would bend a stick across your knee, if this tendency to bending were not resisted by the opposite moments developed by the internal forces (strength) of the structure. (See Art. **1138.**)

1166. The resultant moment, at any point in a structure, of all the forces upon either side of the point, tending to bend the structure about the point is the *bending moment* in the structure at that point. (See Art. **1136.**)

This bending moment is equal to the intercept between the lines of the equilibrium polygon (drawn through the point parallel to the forces), as $f\,h$, multiplied by the pole distance.

1167. In the case of a simple structure carrying vertical loads equilibrated by vertical reactions, the lines of action of all the external forces are vertical, and the intercepts in the equilibrium polygon, which are proportional to the

bending moments, are vertical. This is the case of an ordinary bridge, girder, beam, joist, or other structure which carries vertical loads and has vertical supports; it is the most common, as well as the most simple case. The bending moment at any point in such a structure can be found by the following

Rule.—*The bending moment at any point equals the vertical intercept in the equilibrium polygon multiplied by the pole distance.*

1168. The equilibrium polygon drawn to determine the bending moments caused by vertical forces acting upon a structure is called a **moment diagram.**

EXAMPLE.—Fig. 246 represents four equal loads, $F_1 = F_2 = F_3 = F_4 = 200$ pounds, which are supported upon the horizontal beam, and are in turn supported, together with the beam, by the vertical reactions R_1 and R_2. The weight of the beam itself is not considered. It is desired to ascertain the resultant or bending moment at any point, as C, a point at the center of the span. The length of the span and all distances are shown in the figure.

SOLUTION.—The figure *0-4 P 0* is the force diagram in which the force polygon is the straight line *0-1-2-3-4-0*; the line *0-4*, which represents the loads, is the load line (Art. **1121**), while the line in the opposite direction *4-0*, which coincides with the load line and represents the equilibrant or the sum of the reactions, is the closing line of the force polygon. In the present case, the line *P m*, which divides the load line into the reactions *m 0* and *4 m*, coincides with the line *P 2*; the force diagram might have been so drawn that the line H would also have coincided with *P m* and *P 2*. The pole distance $H = 500$ pounds. The polygon *a b c d e f a* is the equilibrium polygon; *f a* is the closing line. It will be noticed that the closing line of the equilibrium polygon is simply a line drawn to the starting point, to *close the polygon;* its position is usually between the lines of action of the reactions. The vertical intercept *g h* between the lines of the equilibrium polygon, when multiplied by the pole distance H, $= 24 \times 500 =$ 12,000 foot-pounds, will equal the bending moment upon the beam from all the forces at the left of the point C. For it has been shown (Art. **1160**) that the bending moment of a force about any point is the product of the pole distance by the parallel intercept at that point between those two lines of the equilibrium polygon which meet upon the line of action of the force. Remembering this simple principle, it is plain that the positive moment of R_1 about $C = g\,h \times H = 40 \times 500 = 20{,}000$

foot-pounds, while the negative moment of F_1 about $C = -ik \times H = -12 \times 500 = -6{,}000$ foot-pounds, and the negative moment of F_2 about $C = -hi \times H = -4 \times 500 = -2{,}000$ foot-pounds. But $gk - ik - hi = gh$, and the algebraic sum of $gk \times H$, $-ik \times H$ and $-hi \times H = gh \times H$; the resultant moment of R_1, F_1, and F_2 about C is, therefore, $gh \times H = 24 \times 500 = 12{,}000$ foot-pounds, which is the same

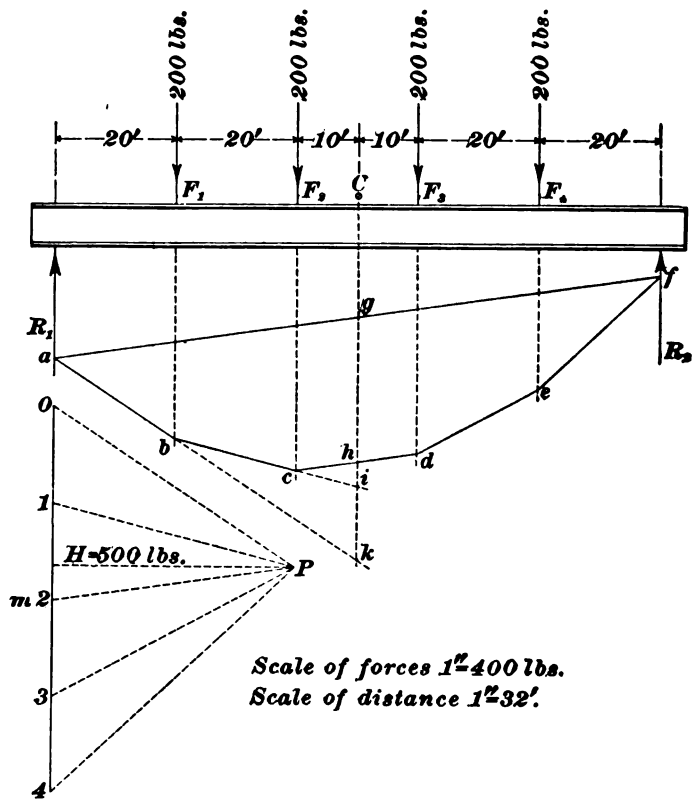


FIG. 246.

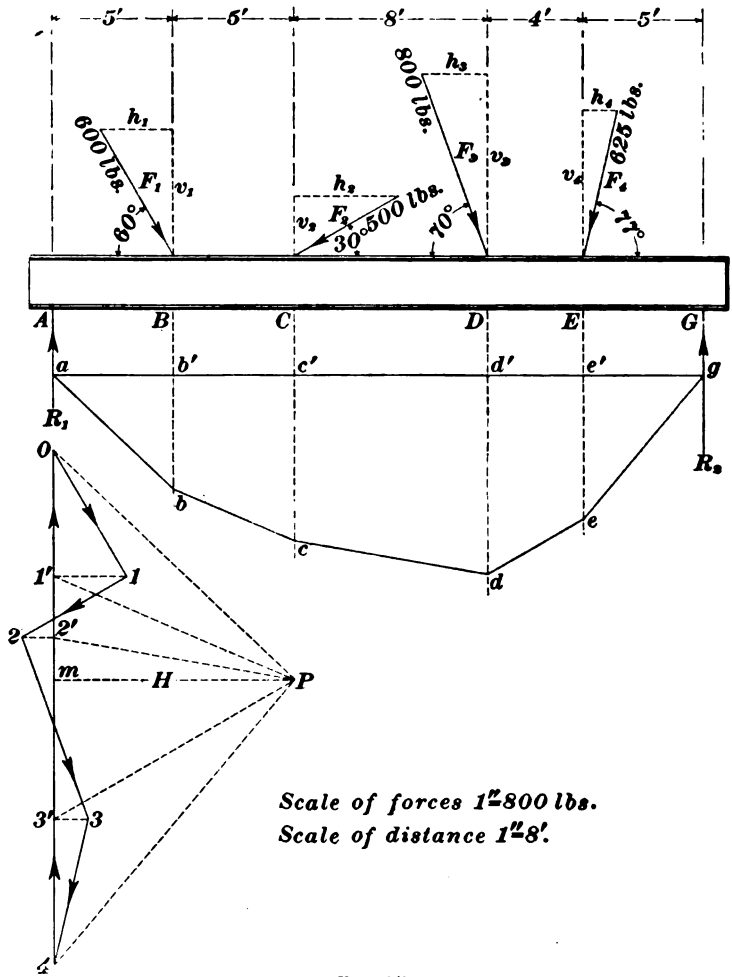
as $20{,}000 - 6{,}000 - 2{,}000 = 12{,}000$ foot-pounds. It is thus seen that the resultant moment of the forces at the left of C about that point equals the vertical intercept in the equilibrium polygon at that point multiplied by the pole distance. The same can be shown of the moments of the forces at the right of C, except that the resultant moment would be negative instead of positive. As C may be any point, the principle is perfectly general.

The student may solve by the graphical method the examples given in Art. **1146.**

1169. If a beam is acted upon by inclined forces, the bending moments resisted by the beam are caused by those components of the applied forces which are parallel to the reactions; the two reactions being parallel to each other, and the perpendicular distance between them being considered as the span of the beam. If the reactions are vertical the bending moments are caused by the vertical components of the applied forces. In Fig. 247, the inclined forces $F_1 = 600$, $F_2 = 500$, $F_3 = 800$, and $F_4 = 625$, all in pounds, act upon the beam $A\ G$; as the reactions are vertical, the bending moments are caused by the vertical components v_1, v_2, v_3, and v_4.

The horizontal components, h_1, h_2, h_3, h_4, of the forces do not produce bending moment, but simply tend to move or slide the beam to the right or left, according to the inclination of each force; this tendency produces direct tension and compression along different portions of the beam. In the present case, the reactions are vertical, and in order that the beams shall not slide to the right or left, the horizontal components of the given forces must balance among themselves. In the figure, it is noticed that the sum of the horizontal components h_1 and h_3 ($= 300 + 273.6 = 573.6$ lb.) which tends to move the beam to the right is just balanced by the sum of h_2 and h_4 ($= 433 + 140.6 = 573.6$ lb.) which tends to move it to the left; consequently, the tendency to cause motion in one direction is just balanced by the opposite tendency, and the beam does not move. This condition of equilibrium between the components of the given forces perpendicular to the reactions will always be fulfilled, if the directions of the reactions are parallel to the equilibrant, or the closing line in the force polygon. In the force polygon *0-1-2-3-4-0*, the equilibrant *4-0* is vertical, indicating that, in this case, the reactions, or at least the resultant of the reactions, must be vertical. To draw the equilibrium polygon that will determine the bending moments upon the beam, proceed as follows:

Draw the force polygon *0-1-2-3-4-0*, in the usual manner; the closing line *4-0* = 2,130.8 pounds is the equilibrant. Project each side *0-1*, *1-2*, *2-3*, and *3-4* of the force polygon



Scale of forces 1″=800 lbs.
Scale of distance 1″=8′.

FIG. 247.

upon the equilibrant by lines drawn through the vertexes (*1*, *2*, and *3*) perpendicular to the equilibrant, as the lines *1-1′*, *2-2′*, and *3-3′*. The lines projected upon the equilibrant,

i. e., the portions of the equilibrant cut off by these perpendicular lines, as *0-1'*, *1'-2'*, *2'-3'*, and *3'-4*, represent the components, parallel to the equilibrant, of the forces F_1, F_2, F_3, and F_4; these components are the forces which cause bending moment upon the beam, and *0-1'-2'-3'-4* is, therefore, the *load line* for the beam. These components are, in this case, vertical. Choose any pole *P*, and draw the rays *P 0*, *P 1'*, *P 2'*, *P 3'*, and *P 4* to the points thus determined upon the load line. Through the points of application of the forces and reactions R_1, F_1, F_2, F_3, F_4, and R_2, which act upon the beam, as through *A*, *B*, *C*, *D*, *E*, and *G* (written below the beam for convenience), draw lines parallel to the equilibrant and of indefinite length. These lines, *A a*, *B b*; *C c*, *D d*, *E e*, and *G g*, must be drawn *through the points of application of the forces and parallel to the equilibrant.* Construct the equilibrium polygon by drawing between these parallel lines the lines *a b*, *b c*, *c d*, *d e*, and *e g* parallel to the rays, and, finally, draw the closing line *g a* to the starting point. In the force diagram, the line *P m* which divides the equilibrant *4-0* into the reactions *4 m* and *m 0* is drawn from the pole to the equilibrant parallel to the closing line *g a* of the equilibrium polygon; by the scale of forces R_1, or $m\,0 = 944.5$ pounds, and R_2, or $4\,m = 1{,}186.3$ pounds. *H* is perpendicular to the equilibrant; in this case, it happens to coincide with *P m*. The intercept between the lines of the equilibrium polygon, from which the bending moment at any point is obtained, must be drawn through the point and *parallel to the equilibrant;* the intercept thus drawn for any point, when multiplied by *H*, equals the bending moment at the point. Thus, the maximum intercept is *d d'*, and $d\,d' \times H = 8.24 \times 1{,}000 =$ 8,240 foot-pounds. The direct compression in the beam between F_1 and F_2 is represented by *1-1'*; *2-2'* represents the tension in the beam between F_2 and F_3, and *3-3'* represents the compression between F_3 and F_4.

1170. In Fig. 246, the closing line of the equilibrium polygon *f a* is not horizontal. The point *f* is simply a point in the line of action of the supporting force R_2; it has no

definite position with reference to the starting point a, but may be any distance above or below a point horizontally opposite to a, and the closing line $f\,a$ may have any inclination, according to the position of the pole in the force diagram. The same is true of the point g and the line $g\,a$ in Fig. 247; it is true of the closing line in any equilibrium polygon. It is sometimes desired to draw the equilibrium polygon so that the closing line shall connect two given points in the lines of action of the supporting forces, or so that the closing line shall be horizontal or have some desired inclination. This may always be done by proceeding as in the following

EXAMPLE.—It is desired to construct the equilibrium polygon for the forces F_1, F_2, F_3, and their reactions, between the points a and e,

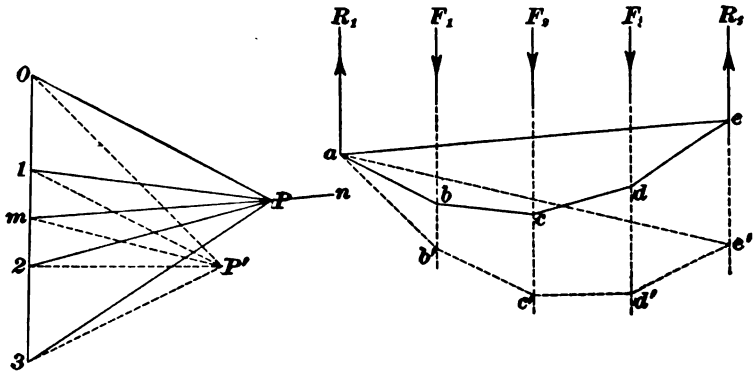


FIG. 248.

Fig. 248, which are points on the lines of action of the supporting forces R_1 and R_2; or, in other words, so that the closing line of the equilibrium polygon will coincide with $e\,a$.

SOLUTION.—Lay off the load line *0-1-2-3*; choose any pole, as P', and draw the rays $P'\,0$, $P'\,1$, $P'\,2$, and $P'\,3$, thus forming the force diagram *0-1-2-3* $P'\,0$. From this construct the equilibrium polygon $a\,b'\,c'\,d'\,e'\,a$ in the usual manner, and, in the force diagram, draw the line $P'\,m$ parallel to the closing line $e'\,a$. The point m will divide the load line *0-3* into the reactions $m\,0$ and $3\,m$, without regard to the *direction* of the line $P'\,m$, which must differ for different positions of the pole. Through the point m, draw a line of any length, as $m\,n$, parallel to the desired closing line $e\,a$ of the equilibrium polygon. For a new pole, choose any point, as P, upon the line $m\,n$; draw the

new rays $P0$, $P1$, $P2$, and $P3$, and construct the new equilibrium polygon in the usual manner by lines drawn parallel to the new rays. The line ea will be the closing line of the new equilibrium polygon $abcdea$.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

In the examples of Art. **1168**, construct the equilibrium polygons so that the closing lines will be horizontal.

1171. When a load is distributed uniformly over the length of a structure, it is divided into sections of any convenient length, and the weight of each section is considered to be concentrated at the center of gravity of the section. The smaller the sections, i. e., the greater the number of sections into which the load is divided, the more accurate will be the results, but for all practical purposes it is not necessary to divide the load into an inconveniently large number of sections. The sections may be of equal or of unequal length, but it is better to make them of equal length when practicable.

EXAMPLE.—Fig. 249 represents a beam, 16 feet long between supports, carrying a uniform load of 960 pounds per foot. The weight of the beam itself is 40 pounds per foot. It is required to construct the equilibrium polygon determining the values of the reactions R_1 and R_2 and the maximum bending moment for the entire load.

SOLUTION.—The total load per foot supported by the beam is $960 + 40 = 1{,}000$ pounds. In order to construct the equilibrium polygon, this uniform load is considered to be divided into sections, each 2 feet long; the center of gravity of each section is at the center of the section, and the weight of each section is $(960 + 40) \times 2 = 2{,}000$ pounds. There are eight sections. The weight of each section is laid off to any convenient scale, upon the load line at *0-1*, *1-2*, ... *7-8*, the pole P is chosen and the rays $P0$, $P1$, etc., are drawn in the usual manner. The pole distance H is equal to 16,000 pounds. Beginning at any point on the vertical through R_1, as a, the line ab is drawn parallel to $P0$ to intersect the vertical through the center of gravity of the first section of the load; from b, the line bc is drawn parallel to $P1$ to intersect the vertical through the center of gravity of the next section of the load; from c the line cd is drawn parallel to $P2$ to intersect the vertical through the center of gravity of the third section of the load, etc. From i on the vertical through the last section of load, the line

ik is drawn parallel to the last ray $P8$, to intersect the vertical through R_2, and finally the closing line ka is drawn joining the verticals through the reactions. In the force diagram, Pm is drawn parallel to ka, dividing the load line into the reactions $8m = R_2$ and $m0 = R_1$. Measuring to the scale of forces, each reaction is found to equal 8,000 pounds. The maximum intercept is found to be at ee', ff' or any point between. This is an error, for, in the case of a really uniform load, the maximum intercept occurs only at the center. This

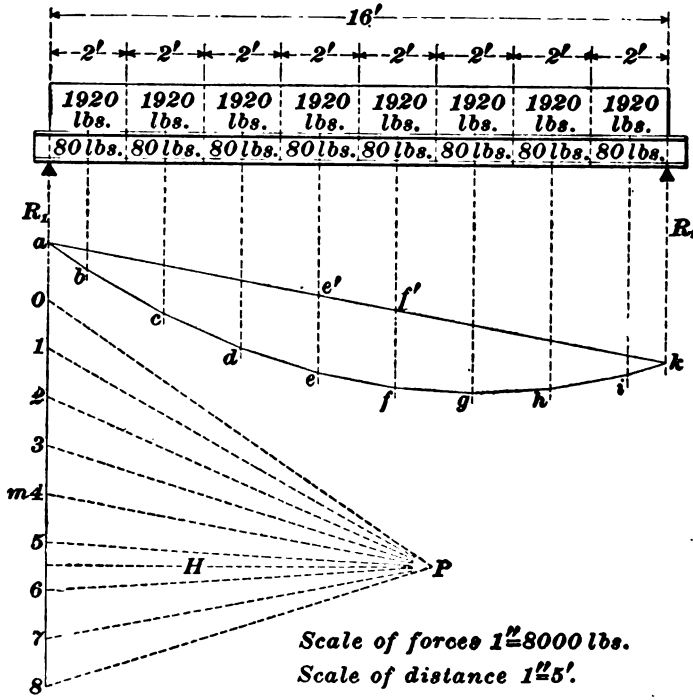


FIG. 249.

slight error is due to the load upon each section having been considered as concentrated at its center of gravity; if the number of sections were greater, the error would be less. Either ee' or ff' equals the maximum intercept. Measuring with the scale of distances $ee' = ff'$ is found to equal 2 feet; therefore, the maximum bending moment equals $2 \times 16{,}000 = 32{,}000$ foot-pounds.

From the preceding we derive the following general

Rule.—*When a beam (or any similar structure) carries a uniform load, divide the beam into any even number of equal*

parts (the more the better); divide the total load into half as many parts; consider the equal parts of the load to be applied alternately at the various points of division of the beam, and treat them as ordinary concentrated loads.

In the example given, the beam is divided into 16 parts, the load into 8. The first point of division (adjacent to the support) carries a weight of 1,000 pounds; the next one carries no weight; the next one does, etc.

1172. The preceding results may be readily computed by the principles of moments. It is evident that each reaction equals one-half the total load. If the total load be considered concentrated at its center of gravity, either as a whole or as divided into sections, and the reactions computed by the principles of Art. **1144,** each reaction will be found to equal one-half the load; one-half the total load is $\frac{(960 + 40)\,16}{2} = 8{,}000$ lb. For the bending moment at any point, take moments of the forces at the left about that point. At the center, the positive moment of the reaction is $8{,}000 \times 8 = 64{,}000$ foot-pounds. The negative moment of that portion of the load at the left of the center (considering it to be concentrated at its center of gravity) is $-\ 8{,}000 \times 4 = -\ 32{,}000$ foot-pounds. The algebraic sum of these moments is $64{,}000 - 32{,}000 = 32{,}000$ foot-pounds, which is the same as the result found graphically.

1173. A structure which supports its entire load or system of loads between two reactions, as in the preceding example, is usually known as a **simple structure.** It is evident that, in such a structure, the two reactions are at its respective ends. By far the greatest number of structures are of this class.

But it is sometimes necessary for a structure to extend beyond, and support loads beyond one or both reactions. The projecting or overhanging end of such a structure, that is, the portion of the structure which extends beyond a support, is known as a **cantilever.** Exactly the same principles apply in finding the bending moments in

structures having cantilever ends, as in simple structures. The equilibrium polygon for a structure with cantilevers, although somewhat different in form from the equilibrium polygon drawn for a simple structure, is constructed according to the same principles and in practically the same manner.

ILLUSTRATION.—In Fig. 250 is represented a beam upon which are supported three loads, $W_1 = 1{,}000$ pounds, $W_2 = 800$ pounds, and $W_3 = 600$ pounds; the beam supports one load, W_3, beyond its right support. It is desired to ascertain the values of the reactions and bending moments for this condition of loading, neglecting the weight of the beam

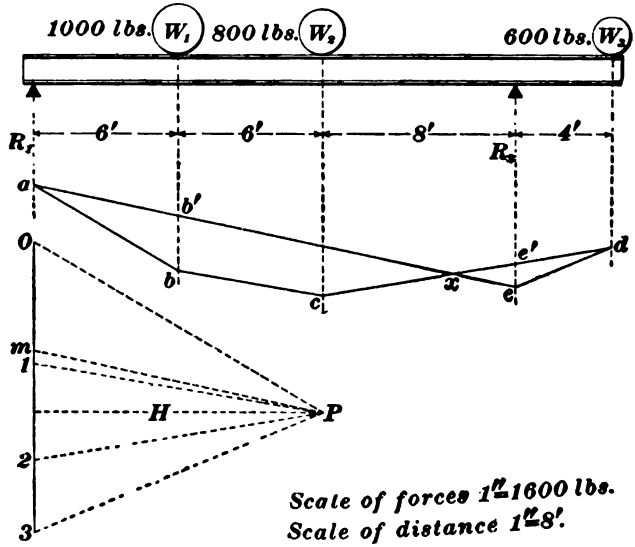


FIG. 250.

itself. Upon the load line *0-1*, *1-2*, and *2-3* are laid off equal to W_1, W_2, and W_3, respectively, to any convenient scale; *0-1-2-3-0* is the polygon of the external forces (loads and reactions) acting upon the beam. The pole P is chosen and the rays of the force diagram $P\,0$, $P\,1$, $P\,2$, and $P\,3$ are drawn in the usual manner. In the figure, the pole distance H is made equal to 2,400 pounds.

Beginning at any point on a vertical line drawn through

the left reaction R_1, as the point a, draw $a\,b$ parallel to $P\,0$, intersecting at b the vertical through the first load W_1; from b draw $b\,c$ parallel to $P\,1$, intersecting at c the vertical through W_2; from c draw $c\,d$ parallel to $P\,2$, *intersecting the vertical through* W_3; from d draw $d\,e$ parallel to $P\,3$, intersecting the vertical through R_2; and finally draw the closing line $e\,a$, completing the equilibrium polygon. In the force diagram, the line $P\,m$ is drawn parallel to $e\,a$, dividing the load line into the reactions $3\,m = R_2$ and $m\,0 = R_1$. By the scale used, $R_2 = 1{,}500$ pounds, and $R_1 = 900$ pounds. $R_1 + R_2 = 2{,}400 = W_1 + W_2 + W_3$, as it should be.

1174. It will be well to notice quite particularly the construction of the equilibrium and force polygons for the preceding condition of loading. Upon the load line the loads are laid off downwards, beginning with the load furthest at the left and taking all the loads in order, passing across the structure to the right. Thus *0-1* is made equal to W_1, *1-2* is made equal to W_2, and *2-3* is made equal to W_3. It would have been as well to have begun with the load at the right, proceeding in order towards the left; and then to have begun the equilibrium polygon at some point on the vertical through the right reaction, drawing the first line to the vertical through the load furthest to the right. But it is customary to begin with the forces at the left, and, by following this custom and always proceeding in the same order, there will be less liability to confusion and error.

In constructing the equilibrium polygon, therefore, begin at the vertical through the left reaction R_1, and draw the first line $a\,b$ parallel to the first ray $P\,0$, intersecting the vertical through the first load W_1; *whether this load be situated at the right or at the left of the reaction.* The next line $b\,c$ is drawn to the vertical through the load next at the right of W_1, or W_2, etc.; the line parallel to the last ray being drawn between the vertical through the load furthest at the right and the vertical through the right reaction. *The closing line of the equilibrium polygon is drawn between the verticals through the reactions.*

1175. In order that the equilibrium polygon may be properly drawn, the point on the load line to which a ray is drawn must be common to (lie between) the same two forces between the lines of action of which is drawn the line of the equilibrium polygon that is parallel to that ray. Thus, in Fig. 250, the point *0* on the load line is common to *m 0*, which represents R_1, and *0-1*, which represents W_1; and in the equilibrium polygon the line *a b*, which is drawn parallel to *P 0*, is drawn between the lines of action of (i. e., the verticals through) R_1 and W_1. Again, the point *m* is common to the two reactions, *3 m*, which represents R_2, and *m 0*, which represents R_1; the line *e a*, which is parallel to *P m*, is drawn between the lines of action of R_1 and R_2. The same is true of any line of this or any properly constructed equilibrium polygon; it connects the lines of action of the same two forces between which the point lies, to which the corresponding ray of the force diagram is drawn. By observing this principle, the equilibrium polygon, of whatever form, may be drawn correctly.

1176. The bending moment at any point of a cantilever or other structure is found by multiplying the intercept in the equilibrium polygon by the pole distance *H*. The position of the maximum intercept can usually be determined by inspection, aided, if necessary, by a few measurements. In a simple structure it is always under a load, but it may be under some portion of a uniformly distributed load. In a cantilever it is always at the support. In a structure having a cantilever end, as that shown at Fig. 250, measurement will determine whether the intercept is maximum at a reaction or under one of the loads. In the present case, it is found that $b\,b' = 2.25$ feet is the maximum intercept; therefore, the maximum bending moment is $2.25 \times 2{,}400 =$ 5,400 foot-pounds. The intercept $e\,e'$ at R_2 equals 1 foot, and the bending moment at that point is $1 \times 2{,}400 =$ 2,400 foot-pounds.

1177. It will be noticed that at *x*, Fig. 250, the lines of the equilibrium polygon cross; at this point there can be

no intercept; therefore, the bending moment at this point is zero. At all points at the left of x the bending moment is positive; while at all points at the right of x the bending moment is negative. (Art. **1127.**) Imagine a straight line to be stretched along the top of an actual beam loaded as in the figure, between R_1 and x; the beam would be found to be bent or deflected in such a manner that all points on it between R_1 and x would be slightly *below* the straight line. The bending moment which tends to bend a beam in this manner is considered *positive*. But imagine the straight line to be stretched along the top of the beam, between x and W_2; the beam would be found to be slightly bent in the opposite direction, i. e., so that all points along the top of the beam between x and W_2 would be slightly *above* the straight line. The bending moment which tends to bend a beam in this manner is considered *negative*.

The sign of the bending moment at any point in a structure is the same as that of the resultant moment of the forces at the left of the point. Thus, when computed from the forces at the *left*, the bending moment at W_1 or W_2, Fig. 250, is found to be positive, while at R_2 it is found to be negative, as stated above.

The point x is sometimes called a point of no bending or point of zero moment, but it is more commonly known as a **point of contraflexure** (i. e., contrary flexure).

1178. When the equilibrium polygon is constructed according to the methods just given, it will be found that the tendency of the bending moments is to bend the structure in the direction in which it would be necessary to bend the closing line in order to make it coincide with the other sides of the polygon. Thus, in Fig. 250, the bending moment between R_1 and the point of contraflexure x tends to bend the beam downwards, which is the direction in which $a\,x$ must be bent in order to make it coincide with a, b, c, x; the bending moment between the point of contraflexure and W_2 tends to bend the beam upwards, which is the direction in which $x\,e$ must be bent to make it coincide with $x\,d\,e$.

The bending moment is *positive* where the closing line, or line drawn towards the left, is the *upper* line of the polygon, and *negative* where it is the *lower* line of the polygon. It is thus known that the bending moment, as found at W_1, is positive, or $+ 5,400$ foot-pounds, while the bending moment, as found at R_2, is negative, or $- 2,400$ foot-pounds.

1179. The values of the reactions and of the bending moments for the above mode of loading can also be readily ascertained by applying the principles given in Arts. **1136** and **1142.** According to Art. **1142,** the algebraic sum of the moments about either reaction is zero. Therefore, if moments are taken about R_2, giving to each moment its proper sign (Art. **1127**), then,

$$R_1 \times 20 - 1,000 \times 14 - 800 \times 8 + 600 \times 4 = 0;$$

by performing each multiplication indicated and transposing,

$$20\ R_1 = 14,000 + 6,400 - 2,400, \text{ and } R_1 = \frac{18,000}{20} = 900 \text{ lb.}$$

Again, by taking moments about R_1,

$$- R_2 \times 20 + 1,000 \times 6 + 800 \times 12 + 600 \times 24 = 0;$$

by multiplying, transposing, and changing signs,

$$20\ R_2 = 6,000 + 9,600 + 14,400, \text{ or } R_2 = \frac{30,000}{20} = 1,500 \text{ lb.}$$

All the forces acting upon the structure are now known, and the bending moment at any point is simply the resultant moment of all the forces upon either side of that point. (Art. **1136.**) The bending moment at W_1, taking the moment of the force at the left, is $900 \times 6 = 5,400$ foot-pounds (positive). If, about the same point, the moments of the forces at the right of the point be taken, there will be $800 \times 6 + 600 \times 18 - 1,500 \times 14 = 4,800 + 10,800 - 21,000 = -5,400$ foot-pounds (negative). By taking moments about R_2, the resultant moment of the forces at the left is $900 \times 20 - 1,000 \times 14 - 800 \times 8 = 18,000 - 14,000 - 6,400 = -2,400$ foot-pounds (negative), while the moment of the force at the right about the same point is $600 \times 4 = 2,400$ foot-pounds (positive).

PRACTICAL EXAMPLES.

1180. EXAMPLE.—Fig. 251 represents a very common form of crane or derrick. The members are designated by Bow's system of notation. Assuming the dimensions to be as shown and the load W to be 8,000 pounds; construct the stress diagram, determining the stress in each member, the pull upon the guy rope $B\,D$, and the direction and amount of the inclined reaction $A\,D$.

SOLUTION.—Of the three forces which act upon joint *1*, one force, $A\,B$ or W, is known; the lines of action of the other two forces are

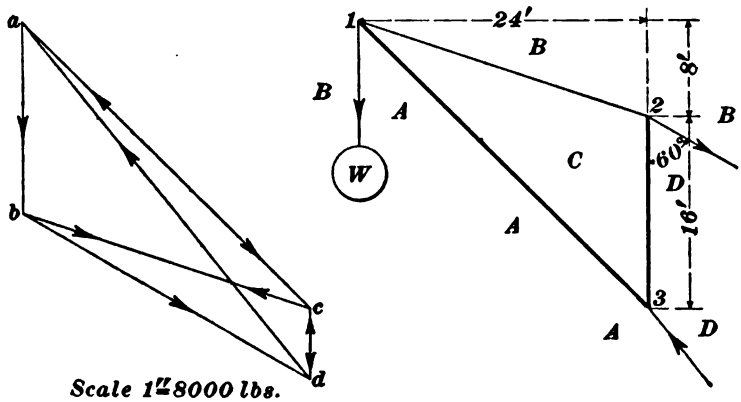


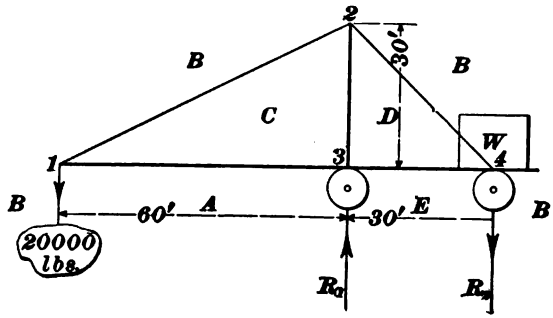
FIG. 251.

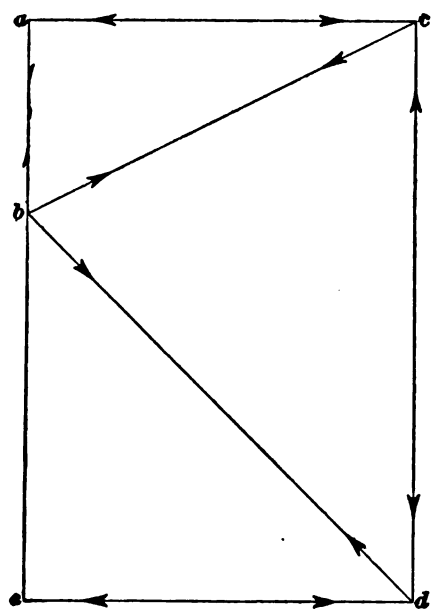
also known, for they are the internal forces in the members of the frame $B\,C$ and $C\,A$.

The line $a\,b$ is, therefore, drawn parallel to the direction in which the load $A\,B$ acts upon this joint, or downwards, and to any convenient scale its length is made equal to the magnitude of that force; from b and a the lines $b\,c$ and $a\,c$ are drawn parallel to $B\,C$ and $A\,C$, respectively, and the arrow-heads marked as usual from the known direction of the arrow-head on $a\,b$. For joint *2*, an additional arrow-head is marked in a reversed position and direction on $c\,b$; the lines $c\,d$ and $b\,d$ are drawn parallel, respectively, to $C\,D$ and $B\,D$, and the arrow-heads marked as usual. For joint *3*, additional arrow-heads are marked in reversed positions and directions on $a\,c$ and $c\,d$, and $d\,a$ is drawn. If everything has been done properly, $a\,d$ will be parallel to $A\,D$.

The lines $a\,b$, $b\,d$, and $d\,a$ form the polygon of the external forces; as each external force acts upon but one joint, therefore, but one arrow-head has been marked upon each of these lines. Measuring the lines of the stress diagram to the same scale to which $a\,b$ was made equal to W, and noticing the relative directions of the arrow-heads

upon each line which represents an internal force, the following results are obtained, in which + indicates compression, and — tension:





Scale 1" = 20000 lbs.

FIG. 252.

Stress in A $C = a\,c = +$ 16,970 lb.
Stress in B $C = b\,c = -$ 12,650 lb.
Stress in C $D = c\,d = +$ 2,930 lb.

Pull upon $B\,D = b\,d =$ 13,860 lb.
Reaction $A\,D = a\,d =$ 19,150 lb.

1181. EXAMPLE.—In Fig. 252 is represented a very simple form of traveler, or traveling crane, which is sometimes used to hoist large bodies into position in erecting structures. It is so constructed that it can be rolled along upon a track, and the long arm projected beyond the structure.

By means of a system of ropes and pulleys operated by an engine at W, large weights are raised at the outer end as shown. The engine acts as a counterweight, and more counterweight is added if necessary. Assuming the dimensions and load to be as shown in the figure, draw the stress diagram, determining the stress in each member of the traveler, and the amount of counterweight W necessary to prevent the traveler from overturning under the action of the load. The weight of the traveler itself will be neglected.

SOLUTION.—In the figure, $a\,e\,d\,c$ is the stress diagram for the forces acting in and upon the frame, drawn to a scale of 1 inch = 20,000 pounds. At joint *1*, three forces act; the lines of action of all three forces are known. and the magnitude and sense of one force, the load $A\,B$, are known. Therefore, $a\,b$ is laid off vertically downwards, and its length is made equal to the load $A\,B = 20{,}000$ pounds. The lines $a\,c$ and $b\,c$ are drawn parallel to $A\,C$ and $B\,C$, respectively, and the arrow-heads marked, starting from a in the direction $a\,b$, and going around the triangle back to a.

For joint *2*, mark an additional arrow-head on $b\,c$ in a reversed direction and position, and draw $c\,d$ and $b\,d$, parallel to $C\,D$ and $B\,D$, respectively; starting from c, mark arrow-heads on the lines in the directions given by the reversed arrow-head on $c\,b$.

For joint *4*, mark a reversed arrow-head on $b\,d$, and draw $b\,e$ and $d\,e$ parallel, respectively, to $B\,E$ and $D\,E$, marking the arrow-heads as before.

The magnitudes of all the internal forces and of the counterweight W have now been found; but, in order that the diagram be in every way complete and the character of each stress determined by the relative directions of the arrow-heads marked upon the lines, it will be necessary to consider the forces which act upon joint *3* with reference to that joint. The magnitudes of all the internal forces which act upon this joint have been found in drawing the polygons for joints *1*, *2*, and *4*, but the force in each member must act upon joint *3* in a direction opposite to that in which it acts upon the joint at the opposite end of the member; therefore, additional arrow-heads must be marked in the opposite directions and positions on the lines representing the forces in the members at this meeting joint. The line $e\,a$, pointing upwards, represents the reaction $A\,E$ or R_1, and the polygon $a\,c\,d\,e\,a$ is the force polygon for joint *3*.

The straight line $a\ b\ e\ a$ is the polygon of the external forces $A\ B$, $B\ E$, and $E\ A$, or the load line. The algebraic sum of the reactions, or $e\ a + (-b\ e)$, equals the load $a\ b$.

It is to be noticed that the force in $A\ C\ (= a\ c)$ and the force in $E\ D$ $(= e\ d)$ are equal. The other forces which act upon joint 3 are perpendicular to these forces and do not affect them; therefore, the forces in $A\ C$ and $E\ D$ must just balance each other.

By measuring the lines to the nearest hundred pounds with the scale used for $a\ b$, and noticing the relative directions of the two arrow-heads which have been marked upon each line representing an internal force, it is found that:

Stress in $A\ C = a\ c = +$ 40,000 lb.
Stress in $B\ C = b\ c = -$ 44,700 lb.
Stress in $C\ D = c\ d = +$ 60,000 lb.
Stress in $B\ D = b\ d = -$ 56,600 lb.
Stress in $D\ E = d\ e = +$ 40,000 lb.
Reaction $E\ A = e\ a =$ 60,000 lb.
Counterweight $B\ E = b\ e =$ 40,000 lb.

1182. EXAMPLE.—In Fig. 253 is represented a roof truss acted upon by the five forces $F_1 = F_2 = F_3 = F_4 = F_5 = 900$ pounds, and the

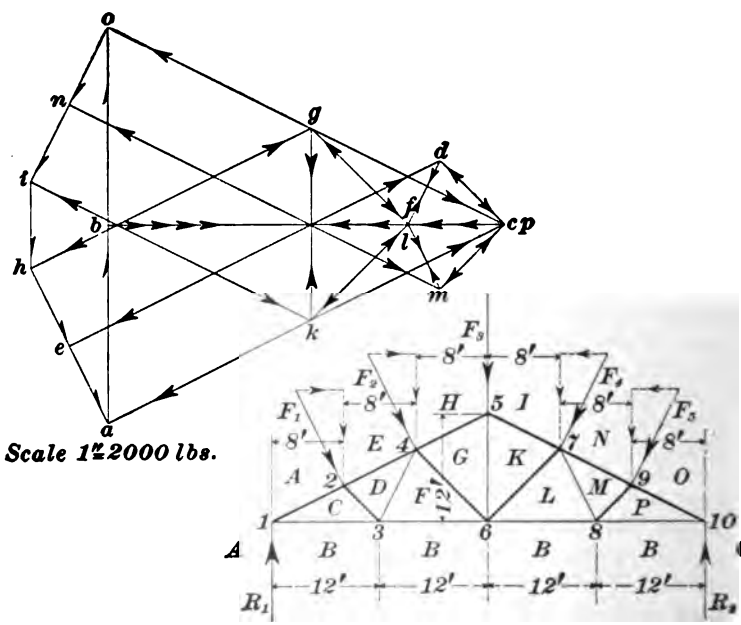


FIG. 253.

two vertical reactions R_1 and R_2. The horizontal distance between any two adjacent forces, as between R_1 and F_1, or between F_1 and F_2, etc., is 8 feet, and the center height of the truss is $5\text{-}6 = 12$ feet. The truss is of the form known as the **triangular roof truss.** It is desired to find the values of the reactions and to determine the stress in each member of the truss.

SOLUTION.—A diagram of the truss and the directions and positions of the forces are shown in Fig. 253. In the diagram of the truss, the members are designated by Bow's system of notation; the stress diagram is shown at the left, the lines being designated by letters corresponding to the letters which in the diagram of the truss designate the respective members in which the forces act. The polygon of the external forces is first drawn, beginning, for convenience, with F_5, and laying off each force in order, $o\,n$ equal and parallel to $O\,N$; $n\,i$ equal and parallel to $N\,I$, etc. The closing line $a\,o = 4{,}120$ pounds represents the equilibrant, or the sum of the reactions. That component of each inclined force which affects the reactions (in this case vertical) may be obtained by projecting each inclined force upon the equilibrant by lines perpendicular to the latter, as explained in Art. **1169.** In order to avoid confusion in the stress diagram, this operation is not shown, but in the diagram of the truss each inclined force is represented as resolved into its horizontal and vertical components. (Art. **1156.**) As the horizontal components balance (that is, those whose directions are to the right balance those whose directions are to the left), it is evident that the values of the reactions resist the vertical components only. Hence, only the vertical components of the inclined forces and the vertical force F_3 are used in computing the reaction. The vertical component of each inclined force is found to be 805 pounds.

Therefore, $R_1 = 805\left(\frac{40}{48} + \frac{32}{48}\right) + 900 \times \frac{24}{48} + 805\left(\frac{16}{48} + \frac{8}{48}\right) = 2{,}060$ lb.,

and $R_2 = 805\left(\frac{8}{48} + \frac{16}{48}\right) + 900 \times \frac{24}{48} + 805\left(\frac{32}{48} + \frac{40}{48}\right) = 2{,}060$ lb. $R_1 + R_2 = 4{,}120$ lb. = the equilibrant $a\,o$. Therefore, upon the equilibrant, $a\,b$ is laid off upwards equal to R_1 or $A\,B$, and $b\,o$ equal to R_2, or $B\,O$; $o\,n\,i\,h\,e\,a\,b\,o$ is the complete polygon of the external forces acting upon the truss. Although the horizontal components of the inclined forces do not affect the values of the reactions, they do affect the magnitudes of the stresses in the members of the truss. In drawing the force polygon for each joint acted upon by an external force, the original force must be used. (If both the horizontal and vertical components are used the effect will be the same.)

Of the three forces acting on joint *1*, the magnitude and direction of one force (the reaction) are known, and the lines of action of the

other two forces are known, as they are the internal forces acting in the two members of the truss that connect at this joint; the reaction AB is represented by the line ab. Therefore, draw ac and bc parallel to AC and BC, respectively, and mark arrow-heads as usual.

For joint *2*, the forces CA and AE ($=ca$ and ae) are already known. Mark in the opposite direction and position an additional arrow-head on ac, and from c and e draw cd and ed parallel, respectively, to CD and ED (Art. **1113**), and mark the arrow-heads by moving in the directions ea (as shown by arrow-head already marked), ac (as shown by reversed arrow-head), cd, de.

Of the forces which act upon joint *3*, the forces in BC and CD are now known; they are represented by the lines bc and cd. Therefore, additional arrow-heads are marked in reversed directions and positions on the lines dc and cb, and from b and d the lines bf and df are drawn parallel to BF and DF, respectively, and the arrow-heads marked by going over the polygon in the direction of the reversed arrow-heads on dc and cb.

Of the forces which act upon joint *4*, the external force HE is known, and the forces in ED and DF have been found; these forces are represented by the lines he, ed, and df, respectively. Additional arrow-heads are marked in opposite positions and directions on ed and df; from h and f the lines hg and fg are drawn parallel, respectively, to HG and FG, and arrow-heads marked as usual.

For joint *5*, the forces in IH ($=ih$) and HG ($=hg$) are known. An additional arrow-head is marked on hg with position and direction reversed; gk and ik are drawn parallel, respectively, to GK and IK, and the arrow-heads marked as usual.

Of the forces which act upon joint *6*, only the forces in BL and LK remain unknown. Additional arrow-heads are marked in reversed positions and directions on kg, gf, and fb, and lines bl and kl are drawn parallel, respectively, to BL and KL, and arrow-heads marked as usual.

The operation of drawing the force polygon is substantially the same for each joint, and for each remaining joint of the truss the operation will be readily followed without being explained in detail.

For joint *7*, $nikl\,mn$ is the force polygon; for joint *8*, $mlbpm$ is the polygon; for joint *9*, $onmpo$ is the polygon, and $opbo$ is the polygon for joint *10*. This last polygon completes the stress diagram; the last line in this polygon is the line bo that was laid off equal to the reaction R_2.

The arrow-head on each line is always marked nearer the end of the line which corresponds to the point of application of the force, according to Art. **1099**.

From the stress diagram, the character and magnitude of the stress in each member of the truss are found to be as follows:

Stress in $A\ C = a\ c = +4{,}610$ lb.
Stress in $B\ C = b\ c = -4{,}120$ lb.
Stress in $C\ D = c\ d = +\ 950$ lb.
Stress in $D\ E = d\ e = +4{,}290$ lb.
Stress in $D\ F = d\ f = -\ 750$ lb.
Stress in $B\ F = b\ f = -3{,}110$ lb.
Stress in $F\ G = f\ g = +1{,}430$ lb.
Stress in $G\ H = g\ h = +3{,}260$ lb.
Stress in $G\ K = g\ k = -2{,}010$ lb.
Stress in $I\ K = i\ k = +3{,}260$ lb.
Stress in $K\ L = k\ l = +1{,}430$ lb.
Stress in $B\ L = b\ l = -3{,}110$ lb.
Stress in $L\ M = l\ m = -\ 750$ lb.
Stress in $M\ N = m\ n = +4{,}290$ lb.
Stress in $M\ P = m\ p = +\ 950$ lb.
Stress in $B\ P = b\ p = -4{,}120$ lb.
Stress in $P\ O = p\ o = +4{,}610$ lb.

It will be noticed that the stresses in all members to the right of $G\ K$ are the same as those in the corresponding members to the left. This might have been anticipated, since the loads are systematically distributed with respect to $G\ K$. In all cases of this kind it is sufficient to determine the stresses in one-half of the truss (the center member included).

1183. For the following examples, and for those given in the questions, results which do not vary more than one per cent. from the answers given will be considered sufficiently accurate. Usually, results between 10 and 100 pounds will be given to the nearest tenth of a pound; between 100 and 1,000 pounds, to the nearest pound; between 1,000 and 10,000 pounds, to the nearest ten pounds, and results above 10,000 pounds will be given to the nearest hundred pounds. For graphical work it is always best to use as large a scale as may be convenient, but in all practical work the results will be sufficiently accurate without using an inconveniently large scale, if the lines are carefully drawn. In order to obtain the required degree of accuracy in graphical constructions, the lines should be drawn with a hard and well sharpened pencil. All lines must be distinct and must give results within the above limits, for accuracy, but need not be drawn in ink. Hard pencil lines are preferable to ink lines for extended or complicated graphical work.

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

1. A beam rests upon two supports which are 12 feet apart. It supports a load W_1 4 feet to the left of the left support, a load W_2 at the center, or midway between the supports, and a load W_3 4 feet to the right of the right support; each load is equal to 600 pounds. Compute (*a*) the value of the left reaction R_1, (*b*) the value of the right reaction R_2, (*c*) the value (magnitude and sign) of the bending moment at R_1, (*d*) at the center, and (*e*) at R_2. The weight of the beam will be neglected in this and the following examples.

Ans. (*a*) + 900 lb.
(*b*) + 900 lb.
(*c*) − 2,400 ft.-lb.
(*d*) − 600 ft.-lb.
(*e*) − 2,400 ft.-lb.

2. Solve the preceding example by constructing the equilibrium polygon.

3. In the above example, considering the load W_2 to be removed from the center of the span, and the loads W_1 and W_3 to remain upon the beam, compute the values (*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), and (*e*).

Ans. (*a*) + 600 lb.
(*b*) + 600 lb.
(*c*) − 2,400 ft.-lb.
(*d*) − 2,400 ft.-lb.
(*e*) − 2,400 ft.-lb.

4. Construct the equilibrium polygon for the conditions given in the preceding example, obtaining the results graphically.

5. Considering the load W_3 to be removed, but the loads W_1 and W_2 to be upon the beam in their respective positions, compute the values (*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), and (*e*).

Ans. (*a*) + 1,100 lb.
(*b*) + 100 lb.
(*c*) − 2,400 ft.-lb.
(*d*) + 600 ft.-lb.
(*e*) 0.

6. Construct the equilibrium polygon for the preceding example, obtaining the results graphically.

7. Considering the loads W_1 and W_3 removed, but the load W_2 to be upon the center of the beam; compute the values (*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), and (*e*).

Ans. (*a*) + 300 lb.
(*b*) + 300 lb.
(*c*) 0.
(*d*) + 1,800 ft.-lb.
(*e*) 0.

8. Construct the equilibrium polygon for the preceding example, obtaining the results graphically.

9. Considering the loads W_2 and W_3 removed, but the load W_1 to be in its position upon the left end of the beam, compute the values (*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), and (*e*).

Ans. (*a*) + 800 lb.
(*b*) − 200 lb.
(*c*) − 2,400 ft.-lb.
(*d*) − 1,200 ft.-lb.
(*e*) 0.

10. Construct the equilibrium polygon for the preceding example, obtaining the results graphically.

11. A beam 15 feet long between supports weighs 40 pounds per foot. It carries, besides its own weight, a uniformly distributed load of 360 pounds per foot and a concentrated load $W = 3{,}600$ pounds, at a distance of 5 feet from the left reaction R_1. Construct the equilibrium polygon and determine the value of (*a*) the left reaction, (*b*) the right reaction, and (*c*) the bending moment under the load.

Ans. (*a*) 5,400 lb.
(*b*) 4,200 lb.
(*c*) 22,000 ft.-lb.

12. With the same beam and uniform load, but with the load W at a distance of 6 feet from the left reaction, find the values (*a*), (*b*), and (*c*) as before.

Ans. (*a*) 5,160 lb.
(*b*) 4,440 lb.
(*c*) 23,760 ft.-lb.

13. (*a*) What position of the load W upon the beam will give the greatest bending moment? (*b*) What is the value of this bending moment? (*c*) What is its sign? Ans. (*b*) 24,750 ft.-lb.

14. See Fig. 251. Assume the mast CD to be 24 feet high; the member BC to be 24 feet long and horizontal (having the position of the dotted line marked *2-4'*); the guy rope BD making an angle of 60 degrees with the vertical mast, as in the figure, and the load W remaining the same (8,000 pounds). Draw the stress diagram for the derrick under the above assumptions, determining the stress in each member, the pull in the guy rope BD, and the amount of the reaction AD.

Ans. Stress in $AC = +$ 11,310 lb.
Stress in $BC = -$ 8,000 lb.
Stress in $CD = +$ 4,620 lb.
Pull in $BD =$ 9,240 lb.
Reaction $AD =$ 14,940 lb.

A SERIES

OF

QUESTIONS AND EXAMPLES

RELATING TO THE SUBJECTS
TREATED OF IN THIS VOLUME.

It will be noticed that the questions and examples contained in the following pages are divided into sections corresponding to the sections of the text of the preceding pages, and that each section has a headline which is the same as the headline of the section to which the questions refer. No attempt should be made to answer any questions or to work any examples until the corresponding part of the text has been carefully studied.

ARITHMETIC.

(SECTION 1.)

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

(1) What is arithmetic?

(2) What is a number?

(3) What is the difference between a concrete number and an abstract number?

(4) Define notation and numeration.

(5) Write each of the following numbers in words:

(*a*) 980; (*b*) 605; (*c*) 28,284; (*d*) 9,006,042; (*e*) 850,317,002; (*f*) 700,004.

(6) Represent in figures the following expressions:

(*a*) Seven thousand, six hundred. (*b*) Eighty-one thousand, four hundred, two. (*c*) Five million, four thousand, seven. (*d*) One hundred eight million, ten thousand, one. (*e*) Eighteen million, six. (*f*) Thirty thousand, ten.

(7) What is the sum of 3,290 + 504 + 865,403 + 2,074 + 81 + 7? Ans. 871,359.

(8) 709 + 8,304,725 + 391 + 100,302 + 300 + 909 = what? Ans. 8,407,336.

(9) Find the difference between the following:

(*a*) 50,962 and 3,338; (*b*) 10,001 and 15,339.

Ans. (*a*) 47,624. (*b*) 5,338.

(10) (*a*) 70,968 − 32,975 = ? (*b*) 100,000 − 98,735 = ?

Ans. (*a*) 37,993. (*b*) 1,265.

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(11) The greater of two numbers is 1,004 and their difference is 49; what is their sum? Ans. 1,959.

(12) From 5,962 + 8,471 + 9,023 take 3,874 + 2,039.
Ans. 17,543.

(13) A man willed $125,000 to his wife and two children; to his son he gave $44,675, to his daughter $26,380, and to his wife the remainder. What was his wife's share?
Ans. $53,945.

(14) Find the products of the following:
(*a*) 526,387 × 7; (*b*) 700,298 × 17; (*c*) 217 × 103 × 67.

Ans. (*a*) 3,684,709.
(*b*) 11,905,066.
(*c*) 1,497,517.

(15) If your watch ticks once every second, how many times will it tick in one week? Ans. 604,800 times.

(16) If a monthly publication contains 24 pages in each issue, how many pages will there be in eight yearly volumes?
Ans. 2,304.

(17) An engine and boiler in a manufactory are worth $3,246. The building is worth three times as much, plus $1,200, and the tools are worth twice as much as the building, plus $1,875. (*a*) What is the value of the building and tools? (*b*) What is the value of the whole plant?

Ans. (*a*) $34,689.
(*b*) $37.935.

(18) Solve the following by cancelation:

(*a*) $\frac{72 \times 48 \times 28 \times 5}{96 \times 15 \times 7 \times 6} = ?$ (*b*) $\frac{80 \times 60 \times 50 \times 16 \times 14}{70 \times 50 \times 24 \times 20} = ?$

Ans. (*a*) 8.
(*b*) 32.

(19) If a mechanic earns $1,500 a year for his labor, and his expenses are $968 per year, in what time can he save enough to buy 28 acres of land, at $133 an acre?
Ans. 7 years.

(20) A freight train ran 365 miles in one week, and 3 times as far, lacking 246 miles, the next week; how far did it run the second week? Ans. 849 miles.

(21) If the driving wheel of a locomotive is 16 ft. in circumference, how many revolutions will it make in going from Philadelphia to Pittsburg, the distance of which is 354 miles, there being 5,280 feet in one mile? Ans. 116,820 rev.

(22) What is the quotient of
(*a*) 589,824 ÷ 576? (*b*) 369,730,620 ÷ 43,911? (*c*) 2,527,525 ÷ 505? (*d*) 4,961,794,302 ÷ 1,234?

Ans. (*a*) 1,024.
(*b*) 8,420.
(*c*) 5,005.
(*d*) 4,020,903.

(23) A man paid $444 for a horse, wagon, and harness. If the horse cost $264 and the wagon $153, how much did the harness cost? Ans. $27.

(24) What is the product of
(*a*) 1,024 × 576? (*b*) 5,005 × 505? (*c*) 43,911 × 8,420?

Ans. (*a*) 589,824.
(*b*) 2,527,525.
(*c*) 369,730,620.

(25) If a man receives 30 cents an hour for his wages, how much will he earn in a year, working 10 hours a day and averaging 25 days per month? Ans. $900.

ARITHMETIC.

(SECTION 2.)

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

(26) What is a fraction?

(27) What are the terms of a fraction?

(28) What does the denominator show?

(29) What does the numerator show?

(30) How do you find the value of a fraction?

(31) Is $\frac{13}{8}$ a proper or an improper fraction, and why?

(32) Write three mixed numbers.

(33) Reduce the following fractions to their lowest terms: $\frac{4}{8}$, $\frac{4}{16}$, $\frac{8}{32}$, $\frac{32}{64}$. Ans. $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$.

(34) Reduce 6 to an improper fraction whose denominator is 4. Ans. $\frac{24}{4}$.

(35) Reduce $7\frac{7}{8}$, $13\frac{5}{16}$, and $10\frac{3}{4}$ to improper fractions. Ans. $\frac{63}{8}$, $\frac{213}{16}$, $\frac{43}{4}$.

(36) What is the value of each of the following: $\frac{13}{2}$, $\frac{17}{4}$, $\frac{69}{16}$, $\frac{16}{8}$, $\frac{67}{64}$? Ans. $6\frac{1}{2}$, $4\frac{1}{4}$, $4\frac{5}{16}$, 2, $1\frac{3}{64}$.

(37) Solve the following:

(*a*) $35 \div \frac{5}{16}$; (*b*) $\frac{9}{16} \div 3$; (*c*) $\frac{17}{2} \div 9$; (*d*) $\frac{113}{64} \div \frac{7}{16}$; (*e*) $15\frac{3}{4} \div 4\frac{2}{5}$.

Ans. (*a*) 112. (*b*) $\frac{3}{16}$. (*c*) $\frac{17}{18}$. (*d*) $4\frac{1}{28}$. (*e*) $3\frac{3}{5}$.

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(38) $\frac{1}{8} + \frac{2}{8} + \frac{5}{8} = ?$ **Ans. 1.**

(39) $\frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{8} + \frac{5}{16} = ?$ Ans. $\frac{15}{16}$.

(40) $42 + 31\frac{5}{8} + 9\frac{7}{16} = ?$ Ans. $83\frac{1}{16}$.

(41) An iron plate is divided into four sections; the first contains $29\frac{3}{4}$ square inches; the second, $50\frac{5}{8}$ square inches; the third, 41 square inches; and the fourth, $69\frac{3}{16}$ square inches. How many square inches are in the plate?

Ans. $190\frac{9}{16}$ sq. in.

(42) Find the value of each of the following:

(*a*) $\dfrac{7}{\frac{3}{16}}$; (*b*) $\dfrac{\frac{15}{32}}{\frac{5}{8}}$; (*c*) $\dfrac{\frac{4+3}{2+6}}{5}$.

Ans. (*a*) $37\frac{1}{3}$. (*b*) $\frac{3}{4}$. (*c*) $\frac{7}{40}$.

(43) The numerator of a fraction is 28, and the value of the fraction $\frac{7}{8}$; what is the denominator? Ans. 32.

(44) What is the difference between (*a*) $\frac{7}{8}$ and $\frac{7}{16}$? (*b*) 13 and $7\frac{7}{16}$? (*c*) $312\frac{9}{16}$ and $229\frac{5}{32}$?

Ans. (*a*) $\frac{7}{16}$. (*b*) $5\frac{9}{16}$. (*c*) $83\frac{13}{32}$.

(45) If a man travels $85\frac{5}{12}$ miles in one day, $78\frac{9}{15}$ miles in another day, and $125\frac{17}{35}$ miles in another day, how far did he travel in the three days? Ans. $289\frac{211}{420}$ miles.

(46) From $573\frac{4}{5}$ tons take $216\frac{5}{8}$ tons. Ans. $357\frac{7}{40}$.

(47) At $\frac{3}{8}$ of a dollar a yard, what will be the cost of $9\frac{1}{4}$ yards of cloth? Ans. $3\frac{15}{32}$ dollars.

(48) Multiply $\frac{2}{3}$ of $\frac{3}{4}$ of $\frac{7}{11}$ of $\frac{19}{20}$ of 11 by $\frac{7}{8}$ of $\frac{5}{6}$ of 45.

Ans. $109\frac{13}{128}$.

(49) How many times are $\frac{3}{8}$ contained in $\frac{3}{4}$ of 16?

Ans. 18 times.

(50) Bought $211\frac{1}{4}$ pounds of old lead for $1\frac{7}{8}$ cents per pound. Sold a part of it for $2\frac{1}{3}$ cents per pound, receiving for it the same amount as I paid for the whole. How many pounds did I have left? Ans. $52\frac{13}{16}$ pounds.

ARITHMETIC.

(SECTION 3.)

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

(51) Write out in words the following numbers. .08 131, .0001, .000027, .0108, and 93.0101.

(52) How do you place decimals for addition and subtraction?

(53) Give a rule for multiplication of decimals.

(54) Give a rule for division of decimals.

(55) State the difference between a fraction and a decimal.

(56) State how to reduce a fraction to a decimal.

(57) Reduce the following fractions to equivalent decimals: $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{7}{8}$, $\frac{5}{32}$, $\frac{65}{100}$, and $\frac{125}{1000}$.

Ans. .5. .875. .15625. .65. .125.

(58) Solve the following: (*a*) $\dfrac{32.5 + .29 + 1.5}{4.7 + 9}$;

(*b*) $\dfrac{1.283 \times \overline{8 + 5}}{2.63}$; (*c*) $\dfrac{\overline{589 + 27} \times \overline{163 - 8}}{25 + 39}$;

(*d*) $\dfrac{\overline{40.6 + 7.1} \times (3.029 - 1.874)}{6.27 + 8.53 - 8.01}$.

Ans. (*a*) 2.5029. (*b*) 6.3418. (*c*) 1,491.875 (*d*) 8.1139.

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(59) How many inches in .875 of a foot? Ans. $10\frac{1}{2}$ in.

(60) What decimal part of a foot is $\frac{3}{16}$ of an inch?
Ans. .015625.

(61) A cubic inch of water weighs .03617 of a pound. What is the weight of a body of water whose volume is 1,500 cubic inches? Ans. 54.255 lb.

(62) If by selling a carload of coal for \$82.50, at a profit of \$1.65 per ton, I make enough to pay for 72.6 ft. of fencing at \$.50 a foot, how many tons of coal were in the car?
Ans. 22 tons.

(63) Divide 17,892 by 231, and carry the result to four decimal places. Ans. 77.4545+.

(64) Find the value of the following expression when the result is carried to three decimal places:

$$\frac{74.26 \times 24 \times 3.1416 \times 19 \times 19 \times 350}{33{,}000 \times 12 \times 4} = ?$$ Ans. 446.619—.

(65) Express (*a*) .7928 in 64ths; (*b*) .1416 in 32ds; (*c*) .47915 in 16ths.

Ans. (*a*) $\frac{51}{64}$. (*b*) $\frac{5}{32}$. (*c*) $\frac{8}{16}$.

(66) Work out the following examples:

(*a*) 709.63 − .8514; (*b*) 81.963 − 1.7; (*c*) 18 − .18; (*d*) 1 − .001; (*e*) 872.1 − (.8721 + .008); (*f*) (5.028 + .0073) − (6.704 − 2.38).

Ans. (*a*) 708.7786. (*b*) 80.263. (*c*) 17.82. (*d*) .999. (*e*) 871.2199. (*f*) .7113.

(67) Work out the following:

(*a*) $\frac{7}{8}$ − .807; (*b*) .875 − $\frac{3}{8}$; (*c*) ($\frac{5}{32}$ + .435) − ($\frac{21}{100}$ − .07); (*d*) what is the difference between the sum of 33-millionths

and 17-thousandths, and the sum of 53-hundredths and 274-thousandths?

Ans. (*a*) .068. (*b*) .5. (*c*) .45125. (*d*) .786967.

(68) What is the sum of .125, .7, .089, .4005, .9, and .000027? Ans. 2.214527.

(69) $927.416 + 8.274 + 372.6 + 62.07938 = ?$

Ans. 1,370.36938

(70) Add 17-thousandths, 2-tenths, and 47-millionths.

Ans. .217047

(71) Find the products of the following expressions:

(*a*) $.013 \times .107$; (*b*) $203 \times 2.03 \times .203$; (*c*) $2.7 \times 31.85 \times (3.16 - .316)$; (*d*) $(107.8 + 6.541 - 31.96) \times 1.742$.

Ans. (*a*) .001391. (*b*) 83.65427. (*c*) 244.56978. (*d*) 143.507702

(72) Solve the following:

(*a*) $(\frac{7}{16} - .13) \times \overline{.625 + \frac{5}{8}}$; (*b*) $(\frac{12}{32} \times .21) - (.02 \times \frac{3}{16})$; (*c*) $(\frac{13}{4} + .013 - 2.17) \times \overline{13\frac{1}{4} - 7\frac{5}{16}}$.

Ans. (*a*) .384375. (*b*) .1209375. (*c*) 6.4896875.

(73) Solve the following:

(*a*) $.875 \div \frac{1}{2}$; (*b*) $\frac{7}{8} \div .5$; (*c*) $\dfrac{.375 \times \frac{1}{4}}{\frac{5}{16} - .125}$.

Ans. (*a*) 1.75. (*b*) 1.75 (*c*) .5.

(74) Find the value of the following expression:

$$\frac{\dfrac{1.25 \times 20 \times 3}{87 + (11 \times 8)}}{459 + 32}.$$

Ans. $210\frac{3}{7}$.

(75) From 1 plus .001 take .01 plus .000001.

Ans. .990999

ARITHMETIC.

(SECTION 4.)

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

(76) What is 25 per cent. of 8,428 lb.? Ans. 2,107 lb.

(77) What is 1 per cent. of $100? Ans. $1.

(78) What is $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of $35,000? Ans. $175.

(79) What per cent. of 50 is 2? Ans. 4%.

(80) What per cent. of 10 is 10? Ans. 100%.

(81) Solve the following:

(*a*) Base = $2,522 and percentage = $176.54. What is the rate? (*b*) Percentage = 16.96 and rate = 8 per cent. What is the base? (*c*) Amount = 216.7025 and base = 213.5. What is the rate? (*d*) Difference = 201.825 and base = 207. What is the rate?

Ans. (*a*) 7%. (*b*) 212. (*c*) $1\frac{1}{2}$%. (*d*) $2\frac{1}{2}$%.

(82) A farmer gained 15% on his farm by selling it for $5,500. What did it cost him? Ans. $4,782.61.

(83) A man receives a salary of $950. He pays 24% of it for board, $12\frac{1}{2}$% of it for clothing, and 17% of it for other expenses. How much does he save in a year? Ans. $441.75.

(84) If $37\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of a number is 961.38, what is the number? Ans. 2,563.68.

(85) A man owns $\frac{3}{4}$ of a property. 30% of his share is worth $1,125. What is the whole property worth?

Ans. $5,000.

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(86) What sum diminished by 35% of itself equals $4,810? Ans. $7,400.

(87) A merchant's sales amounted to $197.55 on Monday, and this sum was 12½% of his sales for the week. How much were his sales for the week? Ans. $1,580.40.

(88) The distance between two stations on a certain railroad is 16.5 miles, which is 12½% of the entire length of the road. What is the length of the road? Ans. 132 miles.

(89) After paying 60% of my debts, I find that I still owe $35. What was my whole indebtedness? Ans. $87.50.

(90) Reduce 28 rd. 4 yd. 2 ft. 10 in. to inches. Ans. 5,722 in.

(91) Reduce 5,722 in. to higher denominations. Ans. 28 rd. 4 yd. 2 ft. 10 in.

(92) How many seconds in 5 weeks and 3.5 days? Ans. 3,326,400 sec.

(93) How many pounds, ounces, pennyweights, and grains are contained in 13,750 gr.? Ans. 2 lb. 4 oz. 12 pwt. 22 gr.

(94) Reduce 4,763,254 links to miles. Ans. 595 mi. 32 ch. 54 li.

(95) Reduce 764,325 cu. in. to cu. yd. Ans. 16 cu. yd. 10 cu. ft. 549 cu. in.

(96) What is the sum of 2 rd. 2 yd. 2 ft. 3 in.; 4 yd. 1 ft. 9 in.; 2 ft. 7 in.? Ans. 3 rd. 2 yd. 2 ft. 1 in.

(97) What is the sum of 3 gal. 3 qt. 1 pt. 3 gi.; 6 gal. 1 pt. 2 gi.; 4 gal. 1 gi.; 8 qt. 5 pt.? Ans. 16 gal. 3 qt. 2 gi.

(98) What is the sum of 240 gr. 125 pwt. 50 oz. and 3 lb.? Ans. 7 lb. 8 oz. 15 pwt.

(99) What is the sum of 11° 16′ 12″; 13° 19′ 30″; 20° 25″; 26′ 29″; 10° 17′ 11″? Ans. 55° 19′ 47″.

(100) What is the sum of 130 rd. 5 yd. 1 ft. 6 in.; 215 rd. 2 ft. 8 in.; 304 rd. 4 yd. 11 in.? Ans. 2 mi. 10 rd. 5 yd. 7 in.

(101) What is the sum of 21 A. 67 sq. ch. 3 sq. rd. 21 sq. li.; 28 A. 78 sq. ch. 2 sq. rd. 23 sq. li.; 47 A. 6 sq. ch. 2 sq.

rd. 18 sq. li.; 56 A. 59 sq. ch. 2 sq. rd. 16 sq. li.; 25 A. 38 sq. ch. 3 sq. rd. 23 sq. li.; 46 A. 75 sq. ch. 2 sq. rd. 21 sq. li.?
Ans. 255 A. 3 sq. ch. 14 sq. rd. 122 sq. li.

(102) From 20 rd. 2 yd. 2 ft. 9 in. take 300 ft.
Ans. 2 rd. 1 yd. 2 ft. 9 in.

(103) From a farm containing 114 A. 80 sq. rd. 25 sq. yd, 75 A. 70 sq. rd. 30 sq. yd. are sold. How much remains?
Ans. 39 A. 9 sq. rd. 25¼ sq. yd.

(104) From a hogshead of molasses, 10 gal. 2 qt. 1 pt. are sold at one time, and 26 gal. 3 qt. at another time. How much remains? Ans. 25 gal. 2 qt. 1 pt.

(105) If a person were born June 19, 1850, how old would he be August 3, 1892? Ans. 42 yr. 1 mo. 14 da.

(106) A note was given August 5, 1890, and was paid June 3, 1892. What length of time did it run?
Ans. 1 yr. 9 mo. 28 da.

(107) What length of time elapsed from 16 min. past 10 o'clock A. M., July 4, 1883, to 22 min. before 8 o'clock P. M., Dec. 12, 1888? Ans. 5 yr. 5 mo. 8 da. 9 hr. 22 min.

(108) If 1 iron rail is 17 ft. 3 in. long, how long would 51 rails be, if placed end to end? Ans. 53 rd. 1½ yd. 9 in.

(109) Multiply 3 qt. 1 pt. 3 gi. by 4.7.
Ans. 4 gal. 2 qt. 1.7 gi.

(110) Multiply 3 lb. 10 oz. 13 pwt. 12 gr. by 1.5.
Ans. 5 lb. 10 oz. 6 gr.

(111) How many bushels of apples are contained in 9 bbl., if each barrel contains 2 bu. 3 pk. 6 qt.?
Ans. 26 bu. 1 pk. 6 qt.

(112) Multiply 7 T. 15 cwt. 10.5 lb by 1.7.
Ans. 13 T. 3 cwt. 67.85 lb.

(113) Divide 358 A. 57 sq. rd. 6 sq. yd. 2 sq. ft. by 7.
Ans. 51 A. 31 sq. rd. 8 sq. ft.

(114) Divide 282 bu. 3 pk. 1 qt. 1 pt. by 12.
Ans. 23 bu. 2 pk. 2 qt. ¼ pt.

(115) How many iron rails, each 30 ft. long, are required to lay a railroad track 23 miles long? Ans. 8,096 rails.

(116) How many boxes, each holding 1 bu. 1 pk. and 7 qt., can be filled from 356 bu. 3 pk. and 5 qt. of cranberries? Ans. 243 boxes.

(117) If 16 square miles are equally divided into 62 farms, how much land will each contain?

Ans. 165 A. 25 sq. rd. 24 sq. yd. 3 sq. ft. 80 + sq. in.

ARITHMETIC.

(SECTION 5.)

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

(118) What is the square of 108? Ans. 11,664.

(119) Find the fifth power of 9. Ans. 59,049.

(120) What is the value of $.0133^3$? Ans. .000002352637.

(121) In what respect does evolution differ from involution?

(122) Extract the square root of 90. Ans. 9.4868+.

(123) Find the value of $(3\frac{3}{4})^3$. Ans. $52\frac{47}{64}$, or 52.734375.

(124) What is the cube root of 92,416? Ans. 45.212−.

(125) Find the value of $\sqrt{502,681}$. Ans. 709.

(126) What is the value of $\sqrt[3]{\frac{27}{64}}$? Ans. $\frac{3}{4}$.

(127) From the cube of 4 take the cube root of 8. Ans. 62.

(128) What is the value of $\sqrt[3]{\frac{3}{8}}$? Ans. .72112+.

(129) Extract the square root of .3364. Ans. .58.

(130) Find the square root of 3.1416. Ans. 1.7725−.

(131) What number multiplied by itself equals 114.9184? Ans. 10.72.

(132) Extract the square root of 3,486,784. Ans. 1,867.3−.

(133) Find the square root of .00041209. Ans. .0203.

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ARITHMETIC.

(SECTION 6.)

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

Find the value of x in the following:

(143) $11.7 : 13 :: 20 : x$. Ans. 22.22+.

(144) (*a*) $20 + 7 : 10 + 8 :: 3 : x$; (*b*) $12^2 : 100^2 :: 4 : x$. Ans. (*a*) 2. (*b*) 277.7+.

(145) (*a*) $\frac{4}{x} = \frac{7}{21}$; (*b*) $\frac{x}{24} = \frac{8}{16}$; (*c*) $\frac{2}{10} = \frac{x}{100}$; (*d*) $\frac{15}{45} = \frac{60}{x}$; (*e*) $\frac{10}{150} = \frac{x}{600}$. Ans. (*a*) $x = 12$; (*b*) $x = 12$; (*c*) $x = 20$; (*d*) $x = 180$; (*e*) $x = 40$.

(146) $x : 5 :: 27 : 12.5$. Ans. $10\frac{1}{8}$.

(147) $45 : 60 :: x : 24$. Ans. 18.

(148) $x : 35 :: 4 : 7$. Ans. 20.

(149) $9 : x :: 6 : 24$. Ans. 36.

(150) $\sqrt[3]{1,000} : \sqrt[3]{1,331} = 27 : x$. Ans. 29.7.

(151) $64 : 81 = 21^2 : x^2$. Ans. 23.625.

(152) $7 + 8 : 7 = 30 : x$. Ans. 14.

(153) A man whose steps measure 2 ft. 5 in. takes 2,480 steps in walking a certain distance. How many steps of 2 ft. 7 in. will be required for the same distance? Ans. 2,320 steps.

(154) If a horse travels 12 mi. in 1 hr. 36 min., how far will he travel at the same rate in 15 hr.? Ans. 112.5 mi.

(155) If a column of mercury 27.63 in. high weighs .76 of a pound, what will be the weight of a column of mercury having the same diameter, 29.4 inches high? Ans. .808+lb.

(156) If 2 gal. 3 qt. 1 pt. of water will last a man 5 da., how long will 5 gal. 3 qt. last him, if he drinks at the same rate? Ans. 10 da.

(157) Heat from a burning body varies inversely as the square of the distance from it. If a thermometer held 6 ft.

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from a stove shows a rise in temperature of 24 degrees, how many degrees rise in temperature would it indicate if held 12 ft. from the stove? Ans. 6°.

(158) If a pile of wood 12 ft. long, 4 ft. wide, and 3 ft. high is worth $12, what is the value of a pile of wood 15 ft. long, 5 ft. wide, and 6 ft. high? Ans. $37.50.

(159) If 100 gal. of water run over a dam in 2 hr., how many gallons will run over the dam in 14 hr. 28 min.? Ans. $723\frac{1}{3}$ gal.

(160) If a cistern 28 ft. long, 12 ft. wide, 10 ft. deep holds 510 bbl. of water, how many barrels of water will a cistern hold that is 20 ft. long, 17 ft. wide, and 6 ft. deep? Ans. $309\frac{9}{14}$ bbl.

(161) If a railway train runs 444 mi. in 8 hr. 40 min., in what time can it run 1,060 mi. at the same rate of speed? Ans. 20 hr. 41.44 min.

(162) If sound travels at the rate of 6,160 ft. in $5\frac{1}{2}$ sec., how far does it travel in 1 min.? Ans. 67,200 ft.

(163) If 5 men by working 8 hours a day can do a certain amount of work, how many men by working 10 hours a day can do the same work? Ans. 4 men.

(164) If a man travel 540 miles in 20 days of 10 hours each, how many hours a day must he travel to cover 630 miles in 25 days? Ans. $9\frac{1}{3}$ hr.

(165) Referring to example 4, Art. **349**, what is the horsepower of an engine whose cylinder is 30 in. in diameter, piston speed 660 ft. per min., and mean effective pressure 42 lb. per sq. in.? Ans. 594 horsepower.

(166) The weight of a cubic inch of cast iron is .261 pound. Referring to Art. **345**, what is the weight of a solid cast-iron cylinder whose diameter is 12 inches and length is 60 inches? Ans. 1,771.11 lb.

(167) Referring to Art. **348**, what is the centrifugal force of a 40-pound body revolving in a circle having a radius of 10 inches, at a speed of 18 feet per second? Ans. 484.7 lb.

ALGEBRA.

(ARTS. 350–524.)

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

(168) Change the fraction $-\dfrac{c-(a-b)}{c+(a+b)}$ so that the sign before the dividing line will be $+$.

(169) Factor the following: (*a*) $9x^4+12x^2y^2+4y^4$; (*b*) $49a^4-154a^2b^2+121b^4$; (*c*) $64x^2y^2+64xy+16$.

(170) Divide: (*a*) $3x^3+x+9x^2-1$ by $3x-1$; (*b*) $a^3-2ab^2+b^3$ by $a-b$; (*c*) $7x^3+58x-24x^2-21$ by $7x-3$.

$$\text{Ans.}\begin{cases}(a)\ 3x^2+2x+1.\\(b)\ a^2+ab-b^2.\\(c)\ x^2-3x+7.\end{cases}$$

(171) Why are letters used in Algebra, and in what ways do they differ from figures?

(172) Factor the expressions: (*a*) $4x^3y-12x^2y^2+8xy^3$. (*b*) x^4-y^4; (*c*) $8x^3-27y^3$.

$$\text{Ans.}\begin{cases}(b)\ (x^2+y^2)(x+y)(x-y).\\(c)\ (2x-3y)(4x^2+6xy+9y^2)\end{cases}$$

(173) Multiply $3m^3+3n^3+10mn^2+10m^2n$ by $5m^2n^3-mn^4-5m^3n^2+3m^4n$.

$$\text{Ans.}\begin{cases}9m^7n+15m^6n^2-5m^5n^3+6m^4n^4\\+25m^3n^5+5m^2n^6-3mn^7.\end{cases}$$

(174) Raise to their indicated powers the following: $(2a^3bc^2)^4$, $(-3a^2b^2c)^5$ and $(-7m^3nx^2y^4)^2$.

(175) Factor: (*a*) $4a^2-b^2$; (*b*) $16x^{10}-1$; (*c*) $16x^8-8x^4y^2+x^2y^4$.

(176) Extract the square root of $4a^6-12a^5x+5a^4x^2+6a^3x^3+a^2x^4$. Ans. $2a^3-3a^2x-ax^2$.

(177) (*a*) Arrange $a^3b^2+2abc+3-7a^2b^3+6a^4b^4$ according to the decreasing powers of a; (*b*) according to the

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increasing powers of b. (c) With $a^2 + 1 + 2a^3 + ax$ arranged according to the *increasing* powers of a, should the 1 be placed first or last, and why?

(178) Find the values of $\sqrt[4]{16a^{12}b^4c^8}$, $\sqrt[5]{-32a^{15}}$ and $\sqrt[3]{-1{,}728a^6d^{12}x^3y^9}$.

(179) (a) Enclose the first three and last three terms of $a - 2x + 4y - 3z - 2b + c$ in parentheses connected by a minus sign. (b) Place the expression $-3b - 4c + d - (2f - 3e)$ in brackets, preceded by a minus sign. (c) Indicate the subtraction of $2b - (3c + 2d) - a$ from x.

(180) Multiply: (a) $2x^3 + 2x^2 + 2x - 2$ by $x - 1$; (b) $x^2 - 4ax + c$ by $2x + a$, and (c) $-a^3 + 3a^2b - 2b^3$ by $5a^2 + 9ab$.

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ 2x^4 - 4x + 2. \\ (b)\ 2x^3 - 7ax^2 + 2cx - 4a^2x + ac. \\ (c)\ -5a^5 + 6a^4b + 27a^3b^2 - 10a^2b^3 - 18ab^4. \end{cases}$

(181) Find the sum of the following: (a) $4xyz - 3xyz - 5xyz$, $6xyz - 9xyz + 3xyz$. (b) $3a^2 + 2ab + 4b^2$, $5a^2 - 8ab + b^2$, $-a^2 + 5ab - b^2$, $18a^2 - 20ab - 19b^2$ and $14a^2 - 3ab + 20b^2$. (c) $4mn + 3ab - 4c$, $3x - 4ab + 2mn$ and $3m^2 - 4p$.

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ -4xyz. \\ (b)\ 39a^2 - 24ab + 5b^2. \\ (c)\ 6mn - ab - 4c + 3x + 3m^2 - 4p \end{cases}$

(182) Find the reciprocal of 3.1416, .7854, and $\frac{1}{64.32}$.

(183) Perform the indicated additions:

(a) $\frac{x}{x-y} + \frac{x-y}{y-x}$; ($b$) $\frac{x^2}{x^2-1} + \frac{x}{x+1} - \frac{x}{1-x}$;

(c) $\frac{3a-4b}{7} - \frac{2a-b+c}{3} + \frac{13a-4c}{12}$.

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ \frac{y}{x-y}. \\ (b)\ \frac{3x^2}{x^2-1}. \\ (c)\ \frac{71a-20b-56c}{84} \end{cases}$

(184) Resolve into their factors: (*a*) $45x^7y^{10} - 90x^5y^7 - 360x^4y^5$; (*b*) $a^2b^2 + 2abcd + c^2d^2$; (*c*) $(a+b)^2 - (c-d)^2$.

Ans. (*c*) $(a+b+c-d)(a+b-c+d)$.

(185) (*a*) Give an illustration, not contained in the text, which will explain the difference between positive and negative quantities. (*b*) In what respects are addition and subtraction different in Algebra from addition and subtraction in arithmetic?

(186) Divide:

(*a*) $\frac{2ax+x^2}{a^2-x^2}$ by $\frac{x}{a-x}$; (*b*) $\frac{6m^2n^2-3n}{4m^4n^2-4m^2n+1}$ by $\frac{3n}{4m^4n^2-1}$;

(*c*) $9+\frac{5y^2}{x^2-y^2}$ by $3+\frac{5y}{x-y}$.

Ans. (*a*) $\frac{2a+x}{a^2+ax+x^2}$. (*b*) $2m^2n+1$. (*c*) $\frac{3x-2y}{x+y}$.

(187) State which of the following trinomials are perfect squares: $1-2x^2+x^4$; $9m^2n^2-2mn+16$; $64+120x+25x^2$; $4x+1+4x^2$; $4a^2+20ab-25b^2$; $4x^2y^2-4y^4+x^4$.

(188) (*a*) What is the reciprocal of $\frac{24}{45}$? (*b*) Of what number is 700 the reciprocal?

(189) Find the least common multiple of $12xy(x^2-y^2)$, $2x^2(x^2+2xy+y^2)$, $3y^2(x-y)^2$ and $6(x^2+xy)$.

Ans. $12x^2y^2(x+y)^2(x-y)^2$.

(190) Multiply: (*a*) $2+4a-5a^3-6a^5$ by $7a^2$; (*b*) $4x^2-4y^3+6z^2$ by $3x^2y$; (*c*) $3b+5c-2d$ by $6a$.

Ans. (*a*) $14a^3+28a^4-35a^5-42a^6$. (*b*) $12x^4y-12x^2y^3+18x^2yz^2$. (*c*) $18ab+30ac-12ad$.

(191) (*a*) Explain in your own words the difference between a coefficient and an exponent. (*b*) How are coefficients and exponents treated in multiplication, and how in division? (*c*) What is the law of signs in multiplication?

(192) Remove the symbols of aggregation from the following:

(*a*) $2a-\{3b+[4c-4a-(2a+2b)]+[3a-\overline{b+c}]\}$;

(*b*) $7a - \{3a - [(2a - 5a) + 4a]\}$;
(*c*) $a - \{2b + [3c - 3a - (a + b)] + [2a - (b + c)]\}$.

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ 5a - 3c. \\ (b)\ 5a. \\ (c)\ 3a - 2c. \end{cases}$

(193) What are the factors of: (*a*) $x^3 + 8$? (*b*) $x^3 - 27y^3$? and (*c*) $xm - nm + xy - ny$? Ans. (*c*) $(x - n)(m + y)$.

(194) Extract the square root of $4x^4 + 8ax^3 + 4a^2x^2 + 16b^2x^2 + 16ab^2x + 16b^4$. Ans. $2x^2 + 2ax + 4b^2$.

(195) Reduce $\dfrac{c(a + b) + cd}{(a + b)c}$ to its simplest form.

(196) Combine the like terms of the expressions: (*a*) $x + y + z - (x - y) - (y + z) - (-y)$; (*b*) $(2x - y + 4z) + (-x - y - 4z) - (3x - 2y - z)$; (*c*) $a - [2a + (3a - 4a)] - 5a - \{6a - [(7a + 8a) - 9a]\}$.

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ 2y. \\ (b)\ z - 2x. \\ (c)\ -5a. \end{cases}$

(197) State how you would read the following expressions: (*a*) $a^2x^2 + 2a^2b^2 - (a + b)$; (*b*) $\sqrt[3]{x} + y(a - n^2)^2$; (*c*) $(m + n)(m - n)^2\left(m - \dfrac{n}{2}\right)$.

(198) Divide $3a^3 + 2 - 4a^5 + 7a + 2a^6 - 5a^4 + 10a^2$ by $a^2 - 1 - a^2 - 2a$. Ans. $2a^3 - 2a^2 - 3a - 2$.

(199) Factor: (*a*) $x^2y^2 - 64x^2y^2$; (*b*) $a^2 - b^2 - c^2 + 1 - 2a + 2bc$; (*c*) $1 - 16a^2 + 8ac - c^2$.

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ x^2y^2(x + 2)(x - 2)(x^2 + 2x + 4)(x^2 - 2x + 4). \\ (b)\ (a - 1 + b - c)(a - 1 - b + c). \\ (c)\ (1 + 4a - c)(1 - 4a + c). \end{cases}$

(200) How may the signs of all the terms of the denominator of a fraction be changed from + to − or from − to + without altering the value of the fraction?

(201) From $a^4 - b^4$ take $5a^3b - 7a^2b^2 + 5ab^3$, and from the result take $3a^4 - 4a^3b + 6a^2b^2 + 5ab^3 - 3b^4$.

Ans. $-2a^4 - a^3b + a^2b^2 - 10ab^3 + 2b^4$.

(202) (*a*) From $3a - 2b + 3c$ take $2a - 7b - c - b$. (*b*)

Subtract $x^3 + y^3 - xy^2$ from $2x^3 - 3x^2y + 2xy^2$. (*c*) From $14a + 4b - 6c - 3d$ take $11a - 2b + 4c - 4d$.

$$\text{Ans.}\begin{cases}(a)\ a + 6b + 4c.\\(b)\ x^3 - 3x^2y + xy^2 + 2xy^2 - y^3.\\(c)\ 3a + 6b - 10c + d.\end{cases}$$

(203) Find the numerical values of the following when $a = 16$, $b = 10$ and $x = 5$: (*a*) $(ab^2x + 2abx)4a$; (*b*) $2\sqrt{4a} - \frac{2bx}{a-b} + \frac{b-x}{x}$; (*c*) $(b - \sqrt{a})(x^3 - b^3)(a^2 - b^2)$.

$$\text{Ans.}\begin{cases}(a)\ 614{,}400.\\(b)\ \tfrac{1}{3}.\\(c)\ 23{,}400.\end{cases}$$

(204) Reduce to their simplest forms:

(*a*) $\frac{15mxy^3}{75mx^2y^2}$; (*b*) $\frac{x^2 - 1}{4x(x+1)}$; (*c*) $\frac{(a^2 + b^2)(a^2 + ab + b^2)}{(a^2 - b^2)(a^2 - ab + b^2)}$.

Ans. (*c*) $\frac{a+b}{a-b}$.

(205) Simplify: (*a*) $\dfrac{\frac{1}{1-x} - \frac{1}{1+x}}{\frac{1}{1-x} + \frac{1}{1+x}}$; (*b*) $\dfrac{\frac{a^2}{b^2} + \frac{1}{a}}{\frac{a}{b^2} - \frac{a-b}{ab}}$;

(*c*) $\dfrac{1}{x + \dfrac{1}{1 + \dfrac{x+1}{3-x}}}$

$$\text{Ans.}\begin{cases}(a)\ x.\\(b)\ \dfrac{a+b}{b}.\\(c)\ \dfrac{4}{3x+3}.\end{cases}$$

(206) Simplify $\frac{3 + 2x}{2 - x} - \frac{2 - 3x}{2 + x} + \frac{16x - x^3}{x^2 - 4}$. Ans. $\frac{1}{x+2}$.

(207) (*a*) Reduce $1 + 2x - \frac{4x - 4}{5x}$ to a fractional form. (*b*) Change $\frac{3x^2 + 2x + 1}{x + 4}$ to a mixed quantity. (*c*) Multiply $1 + \frac{4}{x} - \frac{5}{x^2}$ by $\frac{x - 7}{x^2 - 8x + 7}$.

$$\text{Ans.}\begin{cases}(a)\ \dfrac{10x^2 + x + 4}{5x}.\\(b)\ 3x - 10 + \dfrac{41}{x+4}.\\(c)\ \dfrac{x+5}{x^2}.\end{cases}$$

(208) Find the products of:

(*a*) $\frac{9m^2n^2}{8p^2q^3}$, $\frac{5p^2q}{2xy}$, and $\frac{24x^2y^2}{90mn}$; (*b*) $\frac{a^2-x^2}{a^2+x^2}$ and $\frac{(a+x)^2}{(a-x)^2}$;

(*c*) $3ax+4$ and $\frac{a^2}{9a^2x^2+24a^2x+16a}$.

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ \frac{3mnxy}{4pq^2}. \\ (b)\ \frac{(a+x)(a^2+ax+x^2)}{(a-x)(a^2-ax+x^2)}. \\ (c)\ \frac{a}{3ax+4}. \end{cases}$

(209) Divide: (*a*) $35m^2y+28m^2y^2-14my^3$ by $-7my$: (*b*) $4a^4-3a^3b-a^2b^2$ by a^4; (*c*) $4x^3-8x^5+12x^7-16x^9$ by $4x^3$.

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ -5m^2-4my+2y^2. \\ (b)\ 4-3ab-a^2b^2. \\ (c)\ x-2x^3+3x^5-4x^7. \end{cases}$

(210) (*a*) Write a monomial; a binomial; a polynomial. (*b*) In the expression, $a+2ab-b^2$, why cannot the indicated addition and subtraction be performed? (*c*) What operation is indicated between the quantities in $4ac^2d$?

(211) Multiply $\frac{a^2+c^2+ac}{a^2+b^2-c^2-2ab}$ by $\frac{a^2+c^2-b^2-2ac}{a^4c-ac^4}$.

SUGGESTION.—Factor the numerators and denominators before multiplying.

Ans. $\frac{a+b-c}{ac(a-b+c)(a-c)}$.

(212) Translate the following algebraic expressions into ordinary language: $\sqrt{\frac{a+b+c}{n}}+\sqrt{a}+\frac{b+c}{n}+\sqrt{a+b}+\frac{c}{n}+(a+b)c+a+bc$.

(213) Simplify: (*a*) $\frac{4x+5}{3}-\frac{3x-7}{5x}+\frac{9}{12x^2}$;

(*b*) $\frac{1}{2a(a+x)}+\frac{1}{2a(a-x)}$;

(*c*) $\frac{x}{y}+\frac{y}{x+y}+\frac{x^2}{x^2+xy}$. Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ \frac{80x^3+64x^2+84x+45}{60x^2}. \\ (b)\ \frac{1}{a^2-x^2}. \\ (c)\ \frac{x+y}{y}. \end{cases}$

(214) Find the least common multiple of:
(*a*) $18ax^2$, $72ay^2$ and $12xy$; (*b*) $4(1+x)$, $4(1-x)$ and, $2(1-x^2)$; (*c*) $(a-b)(b-c)$, $(b-c)(c-a)$, $(c-a)(a-b)$

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ 72ax^2y^2. \\ (b)\ 4(1-x^2). \\ (c)\ (a-b)(b-c)(c-a). \end{cases}$

(215) Factor $3x^6 - 3 + a - ax^6$.
Ans. $(x^2+x+1)(x^2-x+1)(x+1)(x-1)(3-a)$.

(216) Extract the square root of $x^4 + 4\frac{1}{4}x^2y^2 + x^3y + 2xy^3 + 4y^4$. Ans. $x^2 + \frac{1}{2}xy + 2y^2$.

(217) What is (*a*) the arithmetic ratio of $x^4 - 1$ to $x + 1$? (*b*) The geometric ratio?

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ x^4 - x - 2. \\ (b)\ (x-1)(x^2+1) \end{cases}$

ALGEBRA.

(ARTS. 525–617.)

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

(218) (*a*) Express with radical signs: $x^{\frac{2}{3}}$; $3x^{\frac{1}{2}}y^{-\frac{1}{3}}$; $3x^{\frac{1}{2}}y^{\frac{1}{3}}z^{\frac{1}{4}}$. (*b*) Clear $a^{-1}b^{\frac{1}{2}}+\frac{c^{-2}}{a+b}+(m-n)^{-1}-\frac{a^2b^{-2}c}{c^{-3}}$ of negative exponents. (*c*) Express with fractional exponents: $\sqrt[7]{x^3}$; $\sqrt[3]{x^{-4}}$; $(\sqrt[4]{b^5x^3})^2$.

(219) Introduce the coefficients under the radical signs in $3\sqrt{21}$, $a^2b\sqrt{b^3c}$ and $2x\sqrt[5]{x}$.

(220) A post has $\frac{1}{5}$ of its length in the earth, $\frac{3}{7}$ in the water, and 13 feet in the air. What is its length?

Ans. 35 feet.

(221) The following formula appears in works on Heat: $t=\frac{W_1s_1t_1+W_2s_2t_2}{W_1s_1+W_2s_2}$. It is required to transform it so that t_2 will stand alone in the first member. In other words, solve for t_2.

Ans. $t_2=\frac{(W_1s_1+W_2s_2)t-W_1s_1t_1}{W_2s_2}$.

(222) A man performed a journey of 48 miles in a certain number of hours, but if he had traveled 4 miles more each hour, he would have performed the journey in 6 hours less time. How many miles did he travel per hour?

Ans. 4 miles.

(223) The formula $S=\sqrt[3]{\frac{CPD^2}{f\left(2+\frac{D^2}{d^2}\right)}}$ has been used to calculate the diameter of the shafts for compound marine engines, where S is the diameter of shaft; C, the length of crank, D and d, the diameters of cylinders, and P, the steam pressure. (*a*) Transform this so that P will stand alone in

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the first member. (*b*) Find the value of P when $S = 6$, $C = 10$, $D = 30$, $d = 18$, and $f = 864$.

$$\text{Ans.} \begin{cases} (a)\ P = \dfrac{(2d^2 + D^2) f S^2}{C D^2 d^2}. \\ (b)\ P = 99.1, \text{ nearly.} \end{cases}$$

(224) Solve the equations:

(*a*) $3x + 6 - 2x = 7x$; (*b*) $5x - (3x - 7) = 4x - (6x - 35)$;
(*c*) $(x + 5)^2 - (4 - x)^2 = 21x$.

$$\text{Ans.} \begin{cases} (a)\ x = 1. \\ (b)\ x = 7. \\ (c)\ x = 3. \end{cases}$$

(225) Find the values of the following:

(*a*) $\sqrt{27} + 2\sqrt{48} + 3\sqrt{108}$; (*b*) $\sqrt[3]{128} + \sqrt[3]{686} + \sqrt[3]{16}$;
(*c*) $\sqrt{\frac{8}{3}} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{6}} + \sqrt{\frac{2}{27}}$.

$$\text{Ans.} \begin{cases} (a)\ 29\sqrt{3}. \\ (b)\ 13\sqrt[3]{2}. \\ (c)\ \frac{19}{36}\sqrt{6}. \end{cases}$$

(226) A vessel containing some water was filled by pouring in 42 more gallons; there was then seven times as much water in the vessel as at first. How much did the vessel hold? Ans. 49 gallons.

(227) Solve:

(*a*) $2\sqrt{3x + 4} - x = 4$; (*b*) $\sqrt{3x - 2} = 2(x - 4)$;
(*c*) $\sqrt{x + 16} = 2 + \sqrt{x}$.

$$\text{Ans.} \begin{cases} (a)\ x = 4. \\ (b)\ x = 6 \text{ or } 2\tfrac{2}{3}. \\ (c)\ x = 9. \end{cases}$$

(228) Solve:

(*a*) $\sqrt{3x - 5} = \dfrac{\sqrt{7x^2 + 36x}}{x}$; (*b*) $x^2 - (b - a)c = ax - bx + cx$; (*c*) $(x - 2)(x - 4) - 2(x - 1)(x - 3) = 0$.

$$\text{Ans.} \begin{cases} (a)\ x = 6 \text{ or } -2. \\ (b)\ x = a - b \text{ or } c. \\ (c)\ x = 1 \pm \sqrt{3}. \end{cases}$$

(229) Solve: (*a*) $\sqrt{x - 4ab} = \dfrac{(a + b)(a - b)}{\sqrt{x}}$;

(*b*) $-\dfrac{1}{\sqrt{x + 1}} + \dfrac{1}{\sqrt{x - 1}} = \dfrac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}$.

$$\text{Ans.} \begin{cases} (a)\ x = (a + b)^2 \text{ or } -(a - b)^2 \\ (b)\ x = 1\tfrac{1}{4}. \end{cases}$$

(230) Solve by substitution:

$$\left.\begin{array}{l} 5x - 2y = 51. \\ 19x - 3y = 180. \end{array}\right\} \qquad \text{Ans.} \left\{\begin{array}{l} x = 9. \\ y = -3. \end{array}\right.$$

(231) Solve the following equations: (*a*) $2x^2 - 27x = 14$; (*b*) $x^2 - \frac{2x}{3} + \frac{1}{12} = 0$; (*c*) $x^2 + ax = bx + ab$.

$$\text{Ans.} \left\{\begin{array}{l} (a)\ x = 14 \text{ or } -\tfrac{1}{2} \\ (b)\ x = \tfrac{1}{2} \text{ or } \tfrac{1}{6}. \\ (c)\ x = b \text{ or } -a. \end{array}\right.$$

(232) A crew that can pull at the rate of 12 miles an hour down the stream finds that it takes twice as long to row a given distance up stream as it does down stream. What is the rate of the current? Ans. 3 miles per hour.

(233) Solve the following:

(*a*) $\frac{10x + 3}{3} - \frac{6x - 7}{2} = 10(x - 1)$;

(*b*) $(a^2 + x)^2 = x^2 + 4a^2 + a^4$; (*c*) $\frac{x - 1}{x - 2} - \frac{x + 1}{x + 2} = \frac{3}{x^2 - 4}$.

$$\text{Ans.} \left\{\begin{array}{l} (a)\ x = 1\tfrac{1}{2}. \\ (b)\ x = 2. \\ (c)\ x = 1\tfrac{1}{3}. \end{array}\right.$$

(234) Solve the following equations, eliminating by addition or subtraction:

$$\left.\begin{array}{l} 11x + 3y = 100. \\ 4x - 7y = 4. \end{array}\right\} \qquad \text{Ans.} \left\{\begin{array}{l} x = 8. \\ y = 4. \end{array}\right.$$

(235) Solve: (*a*) $y^4 = 243$; (*b*) $x^{10} + 31x^5 - 10 = 22$, (*c*) $x^3 - 4x^{\frac{3}{2}} = 96$.

$$\text{Ans.} \left\{\begin{array}{l} (a)\ y = 27. \\ (b)\ x = 1 \text{ or } -2. \\ (c)\ x = 2\sqrt[3]{18} \text{ or } (-8)^{\frac{2}{3}}. \end{array}\right.$$

(236) (*a*) What is the value of a^0? (*b*) What does $a^0 \div a^{-1}$ equal? (*c*) What does $\sqrt[5]{(3x^2 + 5xy^3 + 6x^2y)^7}$ equal when $x = 2$ and $y = 4$?

(237) What is the value of x in:

(a) $\frac{6x+1}{15} - \frac{2x-4}{7x-16} = \frac{2x-1}{5}$; (b) $\frac{ax^2}{c-bx} + a + \frac{ax}{b} = 0$;

(c) $\frac{\sqrt{x}-3}{\sqrt{x}+7} = \frac{\sqrt{x}-4}{\sqrt{x}+1}$?

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ x = -2. \\ (b)\ x = \frac{bc}{b^2-c}. \\ (c)\ x = 25. \end{cases}$

(238) Simplify:

$$(a)\ \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}};\quad (b)\ \frac{3}{11}\sqrt{\frac{4}{7}};\quad (c)\ z\sqrt[3]{\frac{2x}{z}}.$$

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{6}. \\ (b)\ \frac{6}{77}\sqrt{7}. \\ (c)\ \sqrt[3]{2xz^2}. \end{cases}$

(239) Solve the equations:

(a) $\frac{9x+20}{36} = \frac{4(x-3)}{5x-4} + \frac{x}{4}$; (b) $ax - \frac{3a-bx}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$;

(c) $am - b - \frac{ax}{b} + \frac{x}{m} = 0$.

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ x = 8. \\ (b)\ x = \frac{3a+1}{2a+b}. \\ (c)\ x = bm. \end{cases}$

(240) Solve the following equations:

$$\left.\begin{aligned} x+y &= 13. \\ xy &= 36. \end{aligned}\right\}$$

Ans. $\begin{cases} x = 9,\ y = 4. \\ x = 4,\ y = 9. \end{cases}$

(241) Solve the equations:

$$\left.\begin{aligned} x^2 - y^2 &= 98. \\ x - y &= 2. \end{aligned}\right\}$$

Ans. $\begin{cases} x = 5,\ y = 3. \\ x = -3,\ y = -5. \end{cases}$

(242) In the composition of a quantity of gunpowder, the niter was 10 lb. more than $\frac{2}{3}$ of the whole, the sulphur was $4\frac{1}{2}$ lb. less than $\frac{1}{6}$ of the whole, and the charcoal was 2 lb. less than $\frac{1}{7}$ of the niter. What was the amount of gunpowder? Ans. 69 lb.

(243) The hind and fore wheels of a wagon have circumferences of 16 and 14 feet, respectively. How far has the carriage advanced when the fore wheels have made 51 revolutions more than the hind wheels? Ans. 5,712 feet.

(244) Find the values of x in the following:

$$(a)\ 5x^2 - 9 = 2x^2 + 24; \quad (b)\ \frac{3}{4x^2} - \frac{1}{6x^2} = \frac{7}{3};$$

$$(c)\ \frac{x^2}{5} - \frac{x^2 - 10}{15} = 7 - \frac{50 + x^2}{25}.$$

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ x = \pm\sqrt{11}. \\ (b)\ x = \pm\frac{1}{2}. \\ (c)\ x = \pm 5. \end{cases}$

(245) Solve by comparison:

$$\left.\begin{aligned} 4x + 3y &= 48. \\ 5y - 3x &= 22. \end{aligned}\right\}$$

Ans. $\begin{cases} x = 6. \\ y = 8. \end{cases}$

(246) Two trains start at the same time to run 1,200 miles. One runs 10 miles an hour faster than the other and arrives 10 hours sooner; what was the speed of each, supposing it to be uniform? Ans. 30 and 40 miles an hour.

(247) Solve:

$$\left.\begin{aligned} 2x - \frac{y-3}{5} - 4 &= 0. \\ 3y + \frac{x-2}{3} - 9 &= 0. \end{aligned}\right\}$$

Ans. $\begin{cases} x = 2. \\ y = 3. \end{cases}$

(248) Find the product of the following:

$(a)\ \sqrt[3]{2} \times \sqrt[5]{3}$; $(b)\ \sqrt[4]{2ax} \times \sqrt[3]{ax^2}$; $(c)\ 2\sqrt{xy} \times 3\sqrt[5]{x^2y}$.

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ \sqrt[15]{864}. \\ (b)\ \sqrt[12]{8a^7x^{11}}. \\ (c)\ 6\sqrt[10]{x^{11}y^7}. \end{cases}$

(249) A can do a piece of work in 5 days, B in 6 days, and C in $7\frac{1}{2}$ days; in what time will they do it, working together? Ans. 2 days.

(250) A person has two horses, and a saddle worth \$10. If the saddle be put on the first horse, his value becomes double that of the second; but if the saddle be put on the second horse, his value will not amount to that of the first horse by \$13. What is the value of each horse?

Ans. \$56 and \$33.

(251) If A should give B \$5 he would then have \$6 less than B; but if he received \$5 from B, three times his money would be \$20 more than four times B's. How much money did each have?

Ans. $\begin{cases} \text{A, \$31.} \\ \text{B, \$27.} \end{cases}$

(252) Solve the following equations;

(*a*) $x^2 - 6x = 16$; (*b*) $x^2 - 7x = 8$; (*c*) $9x^2 - 12x = 21$.

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ x = 8 \text{ or } -2. \\ (b)\ x = 8 \text{ or } -1. \\ (c)\ x = 2\frac{1}{3} \text{ or } -1. \end{cases}$

(253) Find the values of the following:

$$\left(c^{-\frac{2}{3}}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}};\ \left(m\sqrt{n^3}\right)^{-\frac{1}{3}};\ \left(c\,d^{-2}\right)^{\frac{1}{a}}.$$

(254) A wine merchant has two kinds of wine, one worth 90 cents a quart, and the other 50 cents a quart. How much of each must be put in a mixture of 60 quarts, that the mixture may be worth 75 cents a quart?

Ans. $\begin{cases} 37\frac{1}{2} \text{ qt. of 90-cent wine.} \\ 22\frac{1}{2} \text{ qt. of 50-cent wine.} \end{cases}$

(255) What fraction is that whose numerator being doubled, and denominator being increased by 7, the value becomes $\frac{2}{3}$; but the denominator being doubled, and the numerator increased by 2, the value becomes $\frac{3}{5}$. Ans. $\frac{4}{5}$.

(256) There is a number consisting of two digits, which is equal to four times the sum of those digits; and if 18 be added to the number, the digits will be inverted. What is the number?

NOTE.—Remember that any number, as 28, equals $20 + 8 = 10 \times 2 + 8$. Ans. 24.

(257) When 4 is added to the greater of two numbers, the greater number is $3\frac{1}{4}$ times the less; but when 8 is added to the less, the less is one-half the greater. What are the two numbers? Ans. 48 and 16.

LOGARITHMS.

(ARTS. 618–667.)

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

(258) Solve, using logarithms,

$$x = 351.36 \times 100 \times 24\,[1 - (\tfrac{200}{100})^{.29078}].$$

NOTE.—In logarithmic work negative quantities are used as though they were positive, the sign of the result being determined independently.

Ans. $x = -188{,}300$.

(259) What are the logarithms of the following numbers: (*a*) 2,376? (*b*) .6413? (*c*) .0002507?

(260) Divide the following by using logarithms: (*a*) 755.4 ÷ .00324; (*b*) .05555 ÷ .0008601; (*c*) 4.62 ÷ .6448.

Ans. (*a*) 233,150. (*b*) 64.584. (*c*) 7.1648.

(261) Find the value of x, by using logarithms, in

$$x^{.76} = \frac{238 \times 1000}{.0042^{.6602}}.$$

Ans. $x = 2{,}432{,}700{,}000$.

(262) Divide $\sqrt[5]{.00743}$ by $\sqrt[6]{.006}$.

Ans. 1,893.6.

(263) Multiply together the following by using logarithms: 1,728, .00024, .7462, 302.1 and 7.6094. Ans. 711.40.

(264) Calculate the value of $\dfrac{\sqrt{5.954} \times \sqrt[3]{61.19}}{\sqrt[5]{298.54}}$. Ans. 3.0759.

(265) Calculate the value of $\sqrt[7]{.0532864}$. Ans. .65780.

(266) Obtain the values of: (*a*) $32^{4.6}$; (*b*) $.76^{3.62}$, and (*c*) $.84^{.36}$.

Ans. (*a*) 16,777,000. (*b*) .37028. (*c*) .93590.

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(267) Calculate the value of $\sqrt[6]{\frac{1}{249}} \div \sqrt[5]{\frac{23}{71}}$.

Ans. .49950.

(268) Find the numbers corresponding to the following logarithms: .81293, 2.52460, $\bar{1}.27631$.

(269) Find the value of v_1 in $p\,v^{1.41} = p_1 v_1^{1.41}$, when $p = 134.7$, $v = 1.495$, and $p_1 = 16.421$. Ans. 6.6504.

(270) What is the value of

$$\sqrt[5]{\frac{7.1895 \times 4{,}764.2^3 \times 0.00326^5}{.000489 \times 457^3 \times .576^3}}\,?$$ Ans. .020786.

(271) In the formula $p = 960{,}000\frac{t^{2.18}}{ld}$, find the value of p, when $t = \frac{3}{16}$, $l = 120$, and $d = 2\frac{1}{4}$. Ans. 92.480.

(272) Referring to example 271, what is the value of t, when $p = 160$, $l = 132$ and $d = 2$? Ans. .23863.

GEOMETRY AND TRIGONOMETRY

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

NOTE.—In solving the following examples, the student will find that he will understand them much better if he draws a diagram for each, showing the given conditions and results sought.

(1) If one of the angles formed by one straight line meeting another straight line equals $\frac{4}{5}$ of a right angle, what is the other angle equal to? Ans. $1\frac{1}{5}$ right angles.

(2) If a triangle has two equal angles, what kind of a triangle is it?

(3) The perimeter of a regular decagon is 40 inches; what is the length of a side? Ans. 4 in.

(4) What is one angle of a regular dodecagon equal to? Ans. $1\frac{2}{3}$ right angles.

(5) A triangle has three equal angles; what is it called?

(6) A certain triangle has two equal angles. If, from the vertex of the other angle, a perpendicular is drawn to the side opposite, which is 7 inches long, what are the lengths of the two parts of the side thus divided by the perpendicular?

(7) The shortest distance from a given point to a given line is 9 inches; the distances from this point to the two extremities of the line are 12 inches and 15 inches; what is the length of the line? Ans. 19.94 in.

(8) What is one of the angles of an equiangular octagon equal to? Ans. $1\frac{1}{2}$ right angles.

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(9) Given three points A, B, and C, and the distance from A to B equal to $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches, from B to C $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and from C to A 2 inches; pass a circle through these three points.

(10) The chord of an arc in a circle whose radius is 6 inches is 4 inches long; what is the length of the chord of half the arc? Ans. 2.03 in.

(11) The length of a perpendicular from the center of a circle to a chord is $5\frac{3}{4}$ inches; if the diameter of the circle is 17 inches, what is the length of the chord? Ans. 12.52 in.

(12) The sides of an inscribed angle intercept three-fourths of the circumference; how many quadrants are there in the angle? Ans. $1\frac{1}{2}$ quadrants.

(13) How many equal sectors are there in a circle, if each sector measures $\frac{3}{7}$ of a right angle? Ans. 14 sectors.

(14) If the perimeter of a regular inscribed octagon is 24 inches and the length of the perpendicular from the center to one of the sides is 3.62 inches, what is the diameter of the circle in which the octagon is inscribed?

Ans. 7.84 in.

(15) What part of a circle is an arc of 19° 19′ and 19″? Express it decimally. Ans. .053672 of a circle.

(16) In a triangle ABC, $AB = 26$ feet 7 inches, $AC = 40$ feet, and the included angle $A = 36° 20' 43''$; find the remaining parts.

$$\text{Ans.} \begin{cases} C = 40° 16' 52''. \\ B = 103° 22' 25''. \\ BC = 24 \text{ ft. } 4.4 \text{ in} \end{cases}$$

(17) In a triangle ABC, the side $AB = 16$ feet 5 inches, the side $BC = 13$ feet $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and the angle $A = 54° 54' 54''$; find the remaining parts.

$$\text{Ans.} \begin{cases} B = 42° 19' 36'', \text{ or } 27° 50' 36''. \\ C = 82° 45' 30'', \text{ or } 97° 14' 30''. \\ AC = 11 \text{ ft. } 1\frac{3}{4} \text{ in., or } 7 \text{ ft. } 8\frac{3}{4} \text{ in.} \end{cases}$$

(18) If one-third of an angle of a certain triangle $= 14°\ 47'\ 10''$, what are the angles, one of the other two being two and one-half times the given angle?

Ans. $\begin{cases} 24°\ 44'\ 45''. \\ 44°\ 21'\ 30''. \\ 110°\ 53'\ 45''. \end{cases}$

(19) In a right triangle $A\,B\,C$, the two sides are 437 feet and 792 feet in length; find the hypotenuse and the two acute angles?

Ans. $\begin{cases} 28°\ 53'\ 19''. \\ 61°\ 6'\ 41''. \\ 904 \text{ ft. } 6\tfrac{3}{4} \text{ in.} \end{cases}$

(20) In a triangle $A\,B\,C$, angle $A = 29°\ 21'$, angle $C = 76°\ 44'\ 18''$, and the side $A\,C = 31$ feet 10 inches; find the other three parts.

Ans. $\begin{cases} B\,C = 16 \text{ ft. } 3 \text{ in.} \\ A\,B = 32 \text{ ft. } 3 \text{ in.} \\ B \quad = 73°\ 54'\ 42''. \end{cases}$

(21) (*a*) The area of a circle is 89.42 square inches; what is its diameter and circumference? (*b*) What is the length of a side of the largest regular hexagon that could be inscribed in it? Ans. (*b*) 5.335 in.

(22) The distance between two parallel sides of a wrought-iron octagon bar is 2 inches; what is the weight of a bar 10 feet long, a cubic inch of wrought iron weighing .282 pound? Ans. 112 lb. 2 oz.

(23) The outside and inside diameters of a cast-iron spherical shell are 16 inches and 12 inches; what is its weight, a cubic inch of cast iron weighing .261 pound?

Ans. 323.61 lb.

(24) The length of an arc of a circle is $5\frac{13}{32}$ inches by measurement. If the number of degrees in the arc is 27, what is the diameter of the circle? Ans. 22.95 in.

(25) (*a*) What is the area of a circle whose diameter is $17\frac{1}{64}$ inches? (*b*) What is the length of an arc of $16°\ 7'\ 21''$ in the above circle? Ans. (*b*) 2.394 in.

(26) (*a*) What is the area of an ellipse whose axes are 12 inches and 8 inches? (*b*) What is its perimeter?

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a) \quad 75.4 \text{ sq. in.} \\ (b) \quad 31.731 \text{ in.} \end{cases}$

(27) What is the entire surface of a cone whose base is 7 inches in diameter and whose altitude is 11 inches?

Ans. 165.41 sq. in.

(28) What is the height of a cone having the same volume and diameter as a 10-inch sphere? Ans. 20 in.

(29) What is the height of a cylinder having the same volume and diameter as a 12-inch sphere? Ans. 8 in.

(30) (*a*) What is the area of a triangle whose base is $9\frac{1}{2}$ inches and whose altitude is 12 inches? (*b*) If the angle which one side forms with the base is 79° 22′, what is the perimeter of the triangle? Ans. (*b*) 35.73 in.

(31) The diagonal of a trapezium is 11 inches; the lengths of the perpendiculars from the opposite vertexes upon this diagonal are $4\frac{1}{4}$ inches and 7 inches; what is the area of the trapezium?

(32) The length of a chord of a segment in a circle whose diameter is 10 inches is $6\frac{3}{4}$ inches; what is the area of the segment and the number of degrees in its arc?

Ans. $\begin{cases} 6.074 \text{ sq. in.} \\ 84° \ 54' \ 28.6''. \end{cases}$

(33) What is the volume and entire area of a frustum of a cone whose upper base is 12 inches and lower base is 18 inches in diameter and whose altitude is 14 inches?

Ans. $\begin{cases} 2{,}506.997 \text{ cu. in.} \\ 1{,}042.38 \text{ sq. in.} \end{cases}$

(34) What is the area of the surface of a sphere 27 inches in diameter? Ans. 2,290.2 sq. in.

(35) What is the volume of an engine cylinder, in cubic feet, whose diameter is 19 inches and whose stroke is 24 inches? Ans. 3.938 cu. ft.

(36) The chord of the arc of a segment is 14 inches long and the height of the segment is 2 inches; what is the radius? Ans. $13\frac{1}{4}$ in.

(37) (*a*) What is the volume of a cylindrical ring whose outside diameter is 16 inches and inside diameter 13 inches? (*b*) If made of cast iron, what is its weight?

Ans. (*b*) 21 lb.

(38) The altitude of a parallelopipedon is 18 inches; its base is a square, one edge measuring $5\frac{1}{4}$ inches; what is its convex area, entire area, and volume?

Ans. { 378 sq. in.
433.125 sq. in.
496.125 cu. in.

(39) What is the convex area and entire area of a hexagonal pyramid, the slant height being 37 feet and one edge of the base measuring 12 feet?

Ans. { 1,332 sq. ft.
1,706.112 sq. ft.

(40) If the altitude of the pyramid in the last problem had been 37 feet, what would have been its volume?

Ans. 4,614 cu. ft.

(41) What is the area of a sector if the chord of the arc is $6\frac{7}{8}$ inches long and the diameter of the circle is 10 inches?

Ans. 18.95 sq. in.

(42) What is the area in square feet of a parallelogram whose base is 129 inches long, if the shortest distance between the base and side opposite is 7 feet?

(43) The parallel sides of a trapezoid are 15 feet 7 inches and 21 feet 11 inches long; the altitude is 7 feet 8 inches. What is the area of the trapezoid? Ans. 143.75 sq. ft.

(44) What would be (*a*) the length of a side of a square having the same area as the trapezoid in the last problem? (*b*) the diameter of a circle? (*c*) How much shorter is the circumference of the circle than the perimeter of the square?

Ans. { (*a*) 11.99 ft.
(*b*) $13\frac{1}{2}$ ft.
(*c*) 5 ft. 6.6 in.

(45) In a triangle ABC, $AB = 24$ feet, $BC = 11$ feet 3 inches, and $AC = 18$ feet; required, the three angles.

Ans. { $A = 26° \; 28' \; 5''$.
$B = 45° \; 29' \; 23''$.
$C = 108° \; 2' \; 32''$.

NOTICE.

The present set of questions on the subject of Geometry and Trigonometry are less in number than were contained in the former edition. As a consequence, there is a slight break in the page numbers between the last page of the questions on Geometry and Trigonometry and the Paper following.

ELEMENTARY MECHANICS.

(ARTS. 828–966.)

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

(355) A ball. thrown horizontally by the hand, has a velocity of 500 ft. per second. If the ground is level, and the distance from the ground to the hand at the instant the ball leaves the hand is 5 ft. 6 in., how far will the ball go before striking the ground? Ans. 292.42 ft.

(356) An engine fly-wheel, 80 in. in diameter, makes 160 revolutions per minute; what is the velocity in feet per second of a point on the rim? Ans. 55.85 ft. per sec.

(357) In the last example, through how many degrees, minutes and seconds will a point on the rim turn in one-seventh of a second? Ans. 137° 8′ 34$\frac{2}{7}$″.

(358) The fly-wheel of an engine drives a pulley, rigidly connected to a drum on which an elevator rope winds. The fly-wheel is 4 ft. in diameter and makes 54 revolutions per minute; the diameter of the pulley is 36 in., and of the drum, 18 in.; (*a*) how long will it take the elevator to reach the top of a building 100 ft. high? (*b*) If required to reach it in 30 seconds, how many revolutions should the fly-wheel make per minute? Ans. { (*a*) 17.68 sec. (*b*) 31.83 R. P. M.

(359) Define and give an example of uniform motion; of variable motion.

(360) Define force. Name five different kinds of forces.

(361) Explain what you understand by inertia.

(362) Is inertia a force? If so, why?

(363) What is weight? How is it measured?

(364) In order that the effect of a force upon a body may be compared with that of another force acting on the same body. what three conditions must be fulfilled?

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(365) What is motion? What is rest?

(366) Can a body be in motion with respect to one body and at rest with respect to another? Give examples.

(367) Where will a body weigh the more, on the top of a high mountain or at the bottom of a deep valley, the bottom of the valley being as far below sea-level as the top of the mountain is above?

(368) If the top of a mountain is 31,680 feet above sea-level, what would a body weighing 20,000 lb. at sea-level weigh at the top of the mountain? Take the radius of the earth at sea-level as 3,960 miles. Ans. 19,939 lb. 8½ oz.

(369) If the body in the last example had been dropped in a hole just big enough to let it fall to the bottom, and the bottom of the hole was 2 miles below sea-level, how much would it have weighed at the bottom of the hole?

Ans. 19,989 lb. 14.4 oz.

(370) State the three laws of motion.

(371) What is acceleration?

(372) What do you understand by initial velocity?

(373) Why is it dangerous to jump from a moving train?

(374) Why is it that a man cannot lift himself by pulling his boot straps?

(375) Explain how forces are represented by lines.

(376) What is meant by the expression, "the resultant of several forces"?

(377) If a line 5 in. long represents a force of 20 lb., (*a*) how long must the line be to represent a force of 1 lb.? (*b*) Of 6¼ lb.?

(378) What do you understand by the components of a force?

(379) If a body be acted upon by two equal forces, one due east and the other due south, in what direction will the body move? What is the direction of the resultant of the two forces?

(380) Find the point of suspension of a rectangular cast iron lever 4 ft. 6 in. long, 2 in. deep and ¾ in. thick, having

weights of 47 lb. and 71 lb. hung from each end, in order that there may be equilibrium. Take the weight of a cubic inch of cast iron as .261 lb.

SUGGESTION.—First find the weight of the lever; then consider this weight to be concentrated at the center of gravity of the lever, and combine it with the other two weights in the same manner as though there were three weights.

Ans. { Short arm = 22.342 in.
Long arm = 31.658 in.

Solve the two following examples by the method of triangle of forces, and parallelogram of forces, and mark the direction of the resultant:

(381) Two forces act upon a body at a common point; one with a force of 75 lb., and the other with a force of 40 lb.; if the angle between them is 60°, and both forces act towards the body, what is the value of the resultant?

Ans. 101.12 lb.

(382) In the last example, if one force (the one of 75 lb.) acts away from the body, and the other towards it, what is the resultant? Ans. 65 lb.

(383) If two forces of 27 lb. and 46 lb., respectively, act in exactly opposite directions upon a body, what is the resultant?

(384) The entire solar system is moving through space at the rate of 18 miles per second; (*a*) what is its velocity in miles per hour? (*b*) How far will it go in one day?

(385) Two bodies, starting from the same point, move in opposite directions, one at the rate of 11 ft. per second, and the other at the rate of 15 miles per hour; (*a*) what will be the distance between them at the end of 8 minutes? (*b*) How long before they will be 825 ft. apart?

Ans. { (*a*) 3 miles.
(*b*) 25 seconds.

(386) If six forces act towards the center of gravity of a body at angles of 30°, 45°, 135°, 210°, 225°, and 300°, whose magnitudes are 75, 47, 61, 32, 53, and 98 pounds, respectively, what is the value of their resultant? Solve by method of polygon of forces. Ans. $45\frac{3}{4}$ lb.

(387) Suppose that the velocity of a steamboat in still water is 10 miles per hour, and that it is placed in a river flowing 4 miles per hour; also, that a man is walking the deck from stern to bow at the rate of 3 miles per hour. (*a*) What is the velocity of the boat when headed up stream? (*b*) When headed down stream? (*c*) Of the man in each case?

(388) A peg in the wall is pulled by two strings, one with a force of 21 lb., at an angle to the vertical of 45°, and the other with a force of 28 lb., at an angle of 60°; what is the value and direction of the resultant when the forces are on opposite sides of the vertical line? Use the method of parallelogram of forces. Ans. 30.34 lb.

(389) A force of 87 lb. acts at an angle of 23° to the horizontal; what are its horizontal and vertical components? Find, first, by the method of triangle of forces, and, second, by trigonometry. Ans. $\begin{cases} 80.084 \text{ lb.} \\ 33.994 \text{ lb.} \end{cases}$

(390) A weight of 325 pounds rests upon a smooth inclined plane, as shown in Fig. 119, Art. **884.** If the angle of the plane is 15°, (*a*) what is the perpendicular pressure against it? (*b*) What force would it be necessary to exert parallel to the plane, to keep it from sliding downwards, there being no friction? Solve by trigonometry, and also by the method of the triangle of forces.

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ 313.93 \text{ lb.} \\ (b)\ 84.12 \text{ lb.} \end{cases}$

(391) If the weight of a body is 125 lb., what is its mass?

(392) If the mass of a body is 53.7, what is its weight?

(393) (*a*) Is the mass of a body always the same? (*b*) If the mass of a body on the earth's surface is 25, what would be its mass at the center of the earth? (*c*) On the surface of the moon?

(394) A body on the earth's surface weighs 141 lb.; (*a*) at what point above the surface will it weigh 100 lb.? (*b*) At what point below the surface? Take the earth's radius as 4,000 miles. Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ 749.736 \text{ miles.} \\ (b)\ 1{,}163.12 \text{ miles.} \end{cases}$

(395) If a body were dropped from a balloon 1 mile above the earth's surface, (*a*) how long a time would it require to fall to the earth? (*b*) What would be its velocity when it struck?

Ans. { (*a*) 18.12 seconds.
(*b*) 582.76 ft. per sec.

(396) In the last example, if the body weighed 160 lb., what would be the kinetic energy on striking the earth?

Ans. 844,799 ft.-lb.

(397) If a cannon ball were fired vertically upward with a velocity of 2,360 ft. per second, (*a*) how high would it go? (*b*) How long would it take to return to the earth?

Ans. { (*a*) 16.4 miles.
(*b*) 2 min. 26.77 sec.

(398) The earth turns round once in 24 hours. If it were a perfect sphere 8,000 miles in diameter, how far would a point on the equator travel in one minute?

(399) If a projectile weighing 400 pounds be fired from a cannon with a velocity of 1,875 ft. per second, at a target 6 ft. distant, (*a*) what will be its kinetic energy, on striking the target, in foot-pounds? (*b*) In foot-tons? (*c*) If it penetrates but 6 in., what will be its striking force?

Ans. { (*a*) 21,863,339.55 ft.-lb.
(*b*) 10,931.67 ft.-tons.
(*c*) 43,726,679 lb.

(400) If the acceleration due to gravity were 20 ft. per second, instead of 32.16 ft. per second, how much longer would it take a body to fall to the earth from a height of 200 ft. than it does now? Ans. 0.9454 second.

(401) What do you understand by center of gravity?

(402) What do you understand by specific gravity?

(403) (*a*) What is the density of a cubic foot of a body occupying a space of 800 cu. in., and weighing 500 lb.? (*b*) What is its specific gravity?

Ans. { (*a*) 33.582.
(*b*) 17.28.

(404) A body has been falling freely for 5 seconds; what is its velocity?

(405) Suppose that a body, under certain conditions, were to fall freely for 3 seconds, and then fall uniformly with the velocity it had at the end of the third second for 6 seconds longer, how far would it fall? Ans. 723.6 ft.

(406) The weight of the head and piston of a steam hammer, together with the piston rod, is 8 tons. If it falls 8 ft. and compresses a mass of iron $\frac{1}{2}$ in., what is the force of the blow? Ans. 1,536 tons.

(407) Explain what you understand by centrifugal force.

(408) If a cast iron sphere 4 in. in diameter be revolved in a circle, in which the distance from the center of the sphere to the center of the circle is 15 in., what will be the tension of the string, the sphere making 60 revolutions per minute? Ans. 13.38 lb.

(409) The outside diameter of an engine fly-wheel is 80 in.; width of face, 26 in.; average thickness of rim, 5 in.; revolutions per minute, 175; what is the centrifugal force tending to burst the rim? Ans. 38,641 lb.

(410) If a body weighs one pound at a distance of 100 miles from the center of the earth, (*a*) what will it weigh at the surface? (*b*) At 100 miles above the surface? Take the earth's radius as 4,000 miles. Ans. $\begin{cases} (a) & 40 \text{ lb.} \\ (b) & 38.072 \text{ lb.} \end{cases}$

(411) What would be the horsepower of a machine that could raise 10,746 lb. 354 ft. in 10 minutes?
Ans. 11.5275 H. P.

(412) How far above the surface of the earth will a 2-lb. ball weigh 3 oz.? Ans. 9,064 miles.

(413) What is the range of a projectile thrown horizontally, 50 ft. above a level plain, the initial velocity being 140 ft. per second? Ans. 246.87 ft.

(414) A projectile has an initial velocity of 30 ft. per second. How far below the horizontal line of direction will it strike a body 10 ft. away? Ans. 1 ft. 9.44 in.

(415) What do you understand by moment of a force? Illustrate it.

(416) Illustrate your idea of a couple.

(417) Can a couple have a single resultant force?

(418) Where is the center of gravity of a triangle located?

(419) If $A\ B\ C\ D$ is a quadrilateral, and $A\ B = 10$ in., $B\ C = 8$ in., $C\ D = 7$ in., $D\ A = 9$ in., and the angle between $A\ B$ and $B\ C$ is 90°, where is the center of gravity of the figure? Determine it graphically.

(420) Where is the center of gravity of a regular pentagon, the length of a side being seven inches?

(421) If the weight of the balls shown in Fig. 128 were $W_1 = 21$ lb., $W_2 = 15$ lb., $W_3 = 17$ lb., and $W_4 = 9$ lb., where would the center of gravity be, the distance between the centers of W_1 and W_2 being 34 in. between W_2 and W_3, 25 in.; between W_3 and W_4, 40 in., and between W_4 and W_1, 18 in.?

(422) Find the center of gravity of a square board of uniform thickness whose sides are 14 in. in length, and having one of its corners cut off at a distance of 4 in., measured from that corner each way; or, what is the same thing, cutting off a right-angled triangle whose sides, including the right angle, are 4 in. long.

(423) A bookbinder has a press, the screw of which has 4 threads to the inch. It is worked by a lever 15 in. long, to which is applied a force of 25 lb.; (*a*) what will be the pressure if the loss by friction is 5,000 lb.? (*b*) What would be the theoretical pressure? (*c*) What is the efficiency in this case?

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ 4{,}424.8 \text{ lb.} \\ (b)\ 9{,}424.8 \text{ lb.} \\ (c)\ 46.95\%. \end{cases}$

(424) How would you determine whether a body was stable or not if placed in a certain position?

(425) If a prism 10 inches square has been so cut that its axis is 22 inches long and makes an angle of 60° with the base, will the prism stand or fall when placed on its base? Consider the plane of the upper base as being at right angles to the axis.

(426) If the force moves through a distance of 5 ft. 6 in., while the weight is moving 6 in., (*a*) what is the velocity ratio of the machine? (*b*) What weight would a force of 5 lb. applied to the power arm raise?

(427) In the last example, if the efficiency were 65%, what weight could be raised?

(428) The length of a lever is 5 ft.; where must the fulcrum be placed, so that a weight of 35 lb. at one end may balance one of 180 lb. at the other end?

(429) In a block and tackle the theoretical force necessary to raise a weight of 1,000 lb. is 50 lb.; (*a*) what is the velocity ratio? (*b*) How many pulleys are there? (*c*) If the actual force necessary to raise the load is 95 lb., what is the efficiency? Ans. (*c*) 52.63%.

(430) The nuts on a cylinder head are tightened by a wrench whose handle is 20 in. long. If the force exerted upon the wrench is 60 lb., and the efficiency of the combination is 40%, what pressure will the nut exert against the head (or, in other words, what is the tension of the stud), the pitch of the screw being $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch? Ans. 24,127.5 lb.

(431) The base of an inclined plane is 20 ft. in length and its height is 5 ft.; (*a*) what force acting parallel to the plane will balance a weight of 1,580 lb.? (*b*) What force acting parallel to the base would balance this weight?

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ 383.2 \text{ lb.} \\ (b)\ 395 \text{ lb.} \end{cases}$

(432) Find what the weights W and W' must be to produce equilibrium when the levers shown in Fig. 1 are suspended from the ring A.

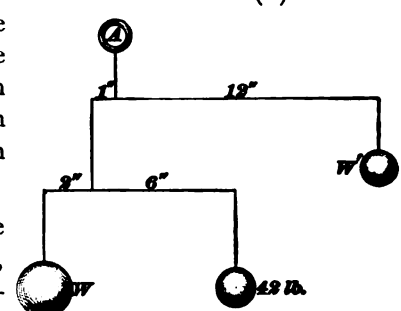

FIG. 1.

(433) If in Fig. 141, the power arms P F equal 14, 21 and 19 inches, respectively, and the weight arms

W F equal $2\frac{1}{2}$, $3\frac{1}{4}$ and $2\frac{7}{8}$ inches, respectively, what force applied at P will raise a load of 725 lb.? Ans. 3.032 lb.

(434) In Fig. 144, suppose the radius of the wheel A is 15 in.; of C, 12 in., of E, 20 in.; of the drum F, 5 in.; of the pinion D, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in., and of B, 3 in.; (*a*) what load would a force of 35 lb. applied at P raise? (*b*) What is the velocity ratio? (*c*) If the weight actually raised was 1,932 lb., what is the efficiency? Ans. Efficiency = 80.5%.

(435) A frame having the shape of an equilateral triangle measuring 15 in. on each edge is suspended in a horizontal position, weights of 12, 15, and 18 lb., respectively, being hung from each corner. Where is the point of suspension that the frame may remain horizontal? Solve graphically, and measure the perpendicular distances from the point of suspension to each edge of the triangle.

(436) A stone weighing 500 lb. is balanced on the edge of the roof of a building 75 ft. high; (*a*) what is its potential energy? (*b*) If all of its potential energy could be changed into kinetic energy, without any loss through friction or heat, how many horsepower would be developed, on the supposition that the work was done in the same time that it would take the stone to fall freely to the ground? Ans. (*b*) 31.57 H.P.

(437) A cubic foot of a certain kind of stone weighs 127 lb.; what is its specific gravity? Ans. 2.032.

(438) The specific gravity of bismuth is 9.823; what is the weight of a cubic inch? Ans. .3553 lb.

(439) In the differential pulley shown in Fig. 149, the radius of the larger pulley is $6\frac{1}{2}$ in., and of the smaller pulley, $5\frac{3}{4}$ in.; what weight will a force P of 60 lb. raise if the efficiency of the mechanism is 48%? Ans. 499.2 lb.

(440) If a hammer whose head weighs $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb., strikes a nail with a velocity of 25 ft. per second, driving it $\frac{3}{8}$ of an inch into the wood, what is the force of the blow?

Ans. 466.42 lb.

(441) If 4 cu. ft. of copper alloy weigh a ton (2,000 lb.), (*a*) what is its specific gravity? (*b*) What is the weight of a cu. in.? Ans. (*a*) Sp. Gr. 8.

(442) If the distance between the center line of the handle and the axis of the drum shown in Fig. 143 is $14\frac{1}{2}$ in., and the diameter of the drum is 5 in., what load will a force of 30 lb. exerted on the handle at P raise?

(443) If the coefficient of friction is .21, what force would be required to move a body weighing 75 lb.?

(444) If a man raises a weight of 900 lb. 150 feet in 15 minutes, by means of a fixed and movable pulley, (*a*) how much work has he done? (*b*) What part of a horsepower is this equivalent to? Ans. (*b*) $\frac{3}{11}$ H.P.

(445) In the last example, what horsepower would the man have actually expended if the resistance due to friction had been 36% of the load? Ans. .3709 H.P.

(446) If a force of 18 lb. is just sufficient to move a weight of 88 lb. along a horizontal plane, what is the coefficient of friction? Ans. .2045.

(447) If 3 cu. ft. of a certain material weigh 1,200 lb., what is its density? Ans. 12.438.

(448) An iron plate rests upon four supports; upon it is placed a weight of 125 lb.; a compressed spring, placed under the plate directly under the center of gravity of the plate and weight, exerts an upward pressure of $47\frac{1}{2}$ lb. What is the pressure upon each support? Neglect weight of plate.

(449) Find the resultant of the forces acting in Fig. 2—all acting towards the same point.

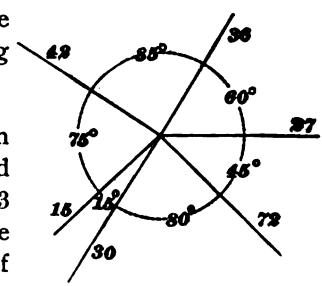

FIG. 2.

(450) The distance between the center line of the handle and the axis of the drum in Fig. 143 is 12 in., and the diameter of the drum is $4\frac{1}{2}$ in. The free end of the rope, forming part of a block and tackle having 6 pulleys, is wound up on this drum. How great a weight can be lifted by the pulleys if a force of 30 lb. is exerted on the handle? Ans. 960 lb.

(451) (*a*) What is the velocity ratio in the last example? (*b*) If the weight actually lifted by a force of 30 lb. was 790 lb., what is the efficiency?

Ans. { (*a*) 32.
(*b*) 82.29%.

(452) It is desired to raise a weight by means of a pulley fixed overhead, the free end of the rope passing over another pulley, fixed to the floor. If the resistance due to friction is 24% of the load lifted, (*a*) what force would be necessary to raise a weight of 475 lb.? (*b*) What is the efficiency?

Ans. { (*a*) 589 lb.
(*b*) 80.64%.

(453) Explain your idea of work, power, horsepower, and kinetic energy. If a constant force of 6 pounds can cause a body weighing 60 pounds to move a distance of 25 feet in $2\frac{1}{2}$ seconds, what is (*a*) the work done? (*b*) The power expended?

HYDRAULICS.

(ARTS. 967–1038.)

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

(454) An iron sphere is sunk in the ocean to a depth of 2 miles. The diameter of the sphere is 20 inches; what is the total pressure upon it? Ans. 5,908,971 lb.

(455) A hollow sphere weighs 125 pounds in air and $83\frac{1}{2}$ pounds in water; what is its volume? Ans. 1,147.4 cu. in.

(456) If capillary attraction causes the water in a vessel to rise 1 inch in a tube $\frac{1}{20}$ of an inch in diameter, how far would it rise in a tube $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch in diameter? Ans. .4 in.

(457) The head on the center of a standard circular orifice in the side of a reservoir is 20 feet. If the diameter of the orifice is 9 inches, how many cubic feet of water will be discharged per second? Ans. 9.432 cu. ft.

(458) A 6-inch wrought-iron pipe 5,000 feet long has a pressure gauge attached near the discharge end. When the end is closed, so that no water flows through the pipe, the gauge shows a pressure of 150 pounds per square inch; what pressure will it show when 1 cubic foot of water per second is discharged through a nozzle attached to the end of the pipe? Ans. 110.36 lb. per sq. in.

(459) If the stream from the nozzle in example 458 is directed vertically upwards, what is the theoretical height to which it will rise, assuming a coefficient of velocity of .98 for the nozzle? Ans. 243.4 ft.

(460) A rectangular vertical orifice in the side of a reservoir is 12 inches wide and 8 inches deep. If the surface of the water in the reservoir is 5 feet above the upper

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edge of the orifice, what is the discharge (*a*) in cubic feet per second? (*b*) in gallons per hour?

Ans. { (*a*) 7.499 cu. ft.
(*b*) 201,930 gal.

(461) Why should an orifice for measuring the flow of water be placed at some distance from the sides and bottom of the reservoir?

(462) Three cubic feet of water per second flow from a nozzle under a head of 75 feet. If the coefficient of velocity of the jet is .98, what is the energy in the jet as it leaves the nozzle? Ans. 13,505 ft.-lb. per sec.

(463) An 8-inch pipe has a hole in it $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch in diameter; what would be the theoretical velocity of efflux, if the surface of the water were 10 feet above the center of the hole? Ans. 25.36 ft. per sec.

(464) A vertical cylinder having a diameter of 20 inches and a length inside of 36 inches is filled with water. A pipe having a diameter of $\frac{3}{8}$ of an inch is screwed into the upper head and fitted with a piston weighing 10 ounces, on which is laid a weight of 25 pounds. If the end of the pipe is 10 feet above the level of the water in the cylinder, what is the pressure per square inch (*a*) on the bottom of the cylinder? (*b*) on the top? (*c*) What equivalent weight laid on the lower cylinder head would replace the pressure it sustains?

Ans. { (*a*) 237.75 lb.
(*b*) 236.45 lb.
(*c*) 74,691.54 lb.

(465) If, in the last example, a hole 1 inch in diameter be drilled through the cylinder wall midway of its length and covered by a flat plate in such a manner that the water can not leak out, what will be the pressure against the plate?

Ans. 186.22 lb.

(466) A piece of wood weighs $11\frac{1}{4}$ ounces in air. It is attached to a piece of marble weighing 5 pounds in air and 3 pounds 2 ounces in water. Both together weigh 2 pounds

9 ounces in water; what is the specific gravity (*a*) of the wood? (*b*) of the marble?

Ans. { (*a*) .555.
(*b*) 2.667.

(467) A weir 4 feet 3 inches long is used to measure the amount of water discharged by a pump. The channel leading to the weir is 8 feet wide and 3 feet deep below the crest. How much water does the pump discharge (*a*) in cubic feet per second, (*b*) in gallons per 24 hours, when the measured head on the weir is .38 foot?

Ans. { (*a*) 3.274 cu. ft.
(*b*) 2,115,700 gal.

(468) A circuiar brick conduit, plastered inside with neat cement, is 4 feet in diameter and has a fall of 3 inches per 100 feet. How much water will it discharge when running one-half full? Ans. 44.31 cu. ft. per sec.

(469) What should be the diameter of a pipe 7,640 feet long, to discharge 5 cu. ft. of water per second under a head of 90 feet?

Ans. { Theoretical diameter, 1.014 ft., nearly.
Nearest market size, 12 in.

(470) A cylinder fitted with a piston is used as a lifting cylinder by passing a rope over a pulley and fastening one end to the piston rod. The piston is moved by means of water obtained from the city reservoir, and a gauge attached to a pipe near the cylinder shows the pressure to be 90 pounds per square inch. The diameter of the cylinder is 19 inches, and of the pipe $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch. If friction be neglected, (*a*) how great a weight can be raised? (*b*) How great a weight could be raised if the pipe were $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch in diameter? Ans. (*a*) 25,517.6 lb.

(471) A circular orifice in the side of a large pipe is 3 inches in diameter, and the pressure on the center of the orifice is 28 pounds per square inch. What is the discharge from the orifice in cubic feet per second?

Ans. 1.876 cu. ft.

(472) The upper base of a cylinder submerged in water is 40 feet below the surface. The diameter of the cylinder is 20 inches, the altitude is 36 inches, and the bases are

parallel. If the bases are horizontal, what is (*a*) the upward pressure of the water on the cylinder? (*b*) the downward pressure? Consider the cylinder as made of wood having a specific gravity of 1.09. Ans. { (*a*) 5,862.85 lb. (*b*) 5,453.82 lb.

(473) A bottle weighs 2 pounds in air and 10 ounces in water. A pound of sugar is put into the bottle, and the bottle then weighs 16 ounces in water; what is the specific gravity of the sugar? Ans. 1.6.

(474) A jet of water issues with a velocity of 33 feet per second; what would be the theoretical head necessary to give it this velocity? Ans. 16.931 ft.

(475) An opening in a thin partition between two reservoirs is 9 inches square. If the surface of the water is 8 feet above the top of the opening on one side and 3½ feet on the other, what will be the rate of the flow through the opening? Ans. 5.885 cu. ft. per sec.

(476) In order to determine the discharge of a stream, a uniform straight stretch 300 feet long was marked by wires stretched across the stream, and the width of the stream was divided into 10 sections. The area of each of these divisions and the time required for rod floats to pass from wire to wire in each were as follows:

Section No.	Area, Sq. Ft.	Time.
1	2.36	3 m. 24 sec
2	5.74	2 m. 32 sec
3	7.48	1 m. 15 sec.
4	9.78	0 m. 37½ sec.
5	9.57	0 m. 40 sec.
6	8.24	0 m. 57 sec.
7	7.15	1 m. 8½ sec.
8	4.09	2 m. 45 sec.
9	3.35	3 m. 3 sec.
10	1.98	3 m. 47 sec.

What was the discharge in cubic feet per second? Ans. 284.955 cu. ft.

(477) (*a*) If the weight of 40 cubic inches of lead in air is 16.4 pounds, how much will it weigh in water? (*b*) If a piece weighing 2 pounds be cut off, what will be the volume of the remaining portion? Ans. (*a*) 14.953 lb. (*b*) 35.122 cu. in.

(478) A vessel having an elliptical base is filled with water. The area of the upper surface of the water is 47 square inches, and the long and short diameters of the base are 13½ inches and 9 inches, respectively. If a pressure of 12 pounds per square inch is applied to the upper surface, and the depth of the water is 20 inches, what is (*a*) the total downward pressure? (*b*) the pressure against upper base? Ans. (*a*) 1,214.144 lb. (*b*) 564 lb.

(479) In the last example, suppose that a flat rectangular plate 5″ × 8″ were so placed on the bottom of the vessel as to make an angle of 53 degrees with the base, one of the narrow edges resting on the base; what is (*a*) the perpendicular pressure on one side of the plate? (*b*) the horizontal pressure? (*c*) the vertical pressure? Ans. (*a*) 504.314 lb. (*b*) 402.76 lb. (*c*) 303.5 lb.

(480) A 5-inch pipe discharges water with a velocity of 7 2 feet per second; how many gallons will it discharge in one day? Ans. 634,478 gal., nearly.

(481) A piece of brass tubing is 1 foot long, its inside diameter is 2 inches, and its outside diameter is 2½ inches If its weight in air is 6 pounds 5 ounces, what is its specific gravity? Ans. 8.23.

(482) A canal is 8 feet wide at the bottom, and the sides have a slope of 30°. If the vertical depth of the water is 5 feet, (*a*) what is the wetted perimeter? (*b*) what is the hydraulic radius? Ans. (*a*) 28 ft. (*b*) 2.975 ft.

(483) If the bed of the canal in example 482 is composed of well-packed earth and has a fall of 2¼ inches in a length

of 2,400 feet, (*a*) what is the probable mean velocity of flow? (*b*) What is the discharge in cubic feet per second?

Ans. { (*a*) 1.196 ft. per sec.
(*b*) 99.627 cu. ft.

(484) A pump must force 5,000,000 gallons of water per 24 hours to a height of 375 feet through a 24-inch pipe 5,362 feet long. If the pipe has no sharp bends, what will be the pressure per square inch on the pump piston?

Ans. 165 lb. per sq. in.

(485) A water-wheel is supplied with 80 cubic feet of water per second through a 48-inch pipe 267 feet long. The inlet end of the pipe is flush with the side of the reservoir; the pipe also has one bend with a radius of 4 feet. What is the head required to produce the flow through the pipe?

Ans. 1.62 ft.

(486) What is the discharge in gallons per second from a 6-inch pipe, if the mean velocity is 7.5 feet per second?

Ans. 11.016 gal.

(487) A hollow iron cylinder is 27 inches long over all; its outside diameter is 14 inches, its inside diameter is 13 inches, and the ends are $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch thick. If placed in water, will it sink or float?

(488) An empty bottle weighing 1 pound 5 ounces is filled with water and then weighs 2 pounds. When filled with linseed oil, it weighs 1 pound 15.34 ounces; what is the specific gravity of the oil? Ans. .94.

(489) A weir without end contractions is 5 feet $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Neglecting the head due to the velocity of approach, how much water does it discharge when the measured head on the crest is .43 foot? Ans. 5 cu. ft. per sec.

(490) What will be the approximate velocity of flow from a straight tube in the side of a reservoir, if the diameter of the tube is 2 inches, its length $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and the head on its center 64 feet? Ans. 52.61 ft. per sec.

(491) Water flows from an 18-inch pipe to a 6-inch pipe through a conical reducer. Assuming that there are no

losses in pressure due to resistances in the reducer, what will be (*a*) the pressure, and (*b*) the velocity of flow in the 6-inch pipe, if the pressure in the 18-inch pipe is 50 pounds per square inch and the velocity of flow 2 feet per second?

Ans. { (*a*) 47.841 lb. per sq. in.
(*b*) 18 ft. per sec.

(492) A 12-inch pipe, 5,842 feet long, without sharp bends, connects two reservoirs, *A* and *B*. The end of the pipe where it enters *B* is 42 feet lower than the end at *A*, and the depth of the water above the center of the pipe at *A* is 27 feet, while the depth above the center of the pipe at *B* is 19 feet. (*a*) What will be the mean velocity of flow through the pipe? (*b*) How many gallons of water will be discharged per 24 hours?

Ans. { (*a*) 5.246 ft. per sec.
(*b*) 2,662,750 gal.

(493) A rectangular orifice in the side of a reservoir is 7½ inches wide by 14 inches deep, and has its upper edge 2 feet below the surface of the water. How many cubic feet per minute will it discharge?

Ans. 346.25 cu. ft. per min.

(494) What would be the discharge if the orifice in example 493 were placed with its long edge horizontal, and the upper edge 2 feet below the surface as before?

Ans. 328 cu. ft. per min.

(495) A cross-section of the upper end of a vessel filled with water is an ellipse whose axes are 6 inches and 4 inches; the lower end is circular and has a diameter of 15 inches; the depth of the water in the vessel is 24 inches; what is the total pressure upon the base if a weight of 132 pounds is laid upon the upper surface? Ans. 1,390.9 lb.

(496) The cylinder of a hydraulic press is 10 inches in diameter. The plunger is forced outwards by means of a small pump which supplies the press cylinder with water, its piston being ½ inch in diameter and its stroke 1½ inches. If a force of 100 pounds be applied to the pump piston, (*a*) how great a force can it exert on the plunger? (*b*) What is the

velocity ratio between the piston and the plunger? (*c*) How far does the plunger advance for one stroke of the piston?

Ans. { (*a*) 40,000 lb.
(*b*) 400 : 1.
(*c*) .00375 in.

(497) The weight necessary to sink a Nicholson's hydrometer to a fixed point on the rod is 2 pounds 8½ ounces. The weight necessary to sink the hydrometer to this point when a piece of slate is in the basket is 1 pound 11 ounces, and when the slate is in the upper pan, 12 ounces. (*a*) What is the specific gravity of the slate? (*b*) What is its volume?

Ans. { (*a*) 1.9.
(*b*) 25.92 cu. in.

(498) The surface of the water contained in a vessel is 19 feet above the ground. (*a*) What is the range of the water issuing from an orifice 4 feet 9 inches from the top? (*b*) How far below the surface is the other point of equal range? (*c*) What is the greatest range?

Ans. { (*a*) 16.454 ft.
(*c*) 19 ft.

(499) How much water will a 10-inch pipe, 6,570 feet long, without sharp bends, discharge under a total head of 328 feet?

Ans. 49.35 gal. per sec

(500) What will be the pressure during flow at a point in the above pipe 2,000 feet from the inlet end, if the center of the pipe at that point is 150 feet below the level of the water in the reservoir? Ans. 21 lb. per sq. in., nearly.

(501) What values of f should be used for (*a*) a 1-inch pipe discharging 0.3 gallon per second; (*b*) a 4-inch pipe discharging 2.5 gallons per second; (*c*) a 12-inch pipe discharging 375 cubic feet per minute; (*d*) a 24-inch pipe discharging 8,000,000 gallons per day; and (*e*) a 48-inch pipe 3¼ miles long under a total head of 50 feet?

Ans. { (*a*) .0260.
(*b*) .0243.
(*c*) .019.
(*d*) .0171.
(*e*) .0115.

(502) What would be the total pressure on a cube one edge of which measures $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches, if sunk $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles below sea-level? Ans. 5,443,383 lb.

(503) A spherical shell whose inside diameter is 19 inches is filled with water, which is subjected to a pressure of 80 pounds to the square inch; what is the pressure tending to separate one half of the sphere from its opposite half? Neglect the weight of the water. Ans. 22,682 lb.

PNEUMATICS.

(ARTS. 1039–1088.)

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

(504) What do you understand by *tension of gases?*

(505) A cylinder filled with compressed air supports a column of mercury 4 feet high. (*a*) What is the tension of the air in pounds per square inch? (*b*) In atmospheres? Take the weight of a cubic inch of mercury in all cases as .49 pound.

Ans. { (*a*) 23.52 lb.
(*b*) 1.6 atmos.

(506) By reason of a partial vacuum, a column of water 19 feet in height is supported by the atmosphere. (*a*) How many inches of vacuum does the gauge show, and (*b*) what is the pressure above the mercury in pounds per square inch?

Ans. { (*a*) 16.828 in.
(*b*) 6.454 lb. per sq. in.

(507) A closed vessel, fitted with a piston, contains coal gas under a pressure of three atmospheres. If the piston is so moved that the volume is $2\frac{1}{2}$ times its former volume, what is the tension of the gas in pounds per square inch? The temperature is the same in both cases.

Ans. 17.64 lb. per sq. in.

(508) A certain quantity of air, under a pressure of $1\frac{1}{2}$ atmospheres and a temperature of 75°, weighs 7.14 pounds. It is put in an empty vessel in which one cubic foot of air weighs .08 pound. (*a*) What is the new volume? (*b*) The temperature, the pressure remaining the same? (*c*) The original volume?

Ans. { (*a*) 89.25 cu. ft.
(*b*) 283.887°.
(*c*) 64.188 cu. ft.

(509) The temperature of the discharged air of an air compressor, the tension of which is 40 pounds per square

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inch, is 120°; when it has cooled down to the temperature of the surrounding air, which is 55°, what is its tension?

Ans. 35.517 lb. per sq. in.

(510) What is the weight of a cubic foot of air at 60°, under a pressure of one atmosphere? Ans. .076296 lb.

(511) The total pressure upon a body is 175,000 pounds per square foot; what is the equivalent pressure in atmospheres? Ans. 82.672 atmos.

(512) Three gases, oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen, are mixed together in a vessel containing 40 cubic feet. The volume and tension of the oxygen are 12 cubic feet and one atmosphere, respectively; of the hydrogen, 10 cubic feet and two atmospheres; of the nitrogen, 8 cubic feet and three atmospheres. The temperature of the separate gases and of the mixture remaining the same throughout, what is the tension of the mixture? Ans. 20.58 lb. per sq. in.

(513) In the last example, suppose the volume of the mixture is not known, and that the tension is required to be 23 pounds per square inch; what is the volume of the mixture? Ans. 35.79 cu. ft.

(514) A balloon is filled with 10,000 cubic feet of hot air at a temperature of 280°. If the temperature of the surrounding air is 77°, and the weight of the balloon and fixtures is 100 pounds, how great a weight will it lift? The tension of the hot air is one atmosphere. Ans. 102.68 lb.

(515) A vessel containing 13 cubic feet of air having a temperature of 73° and a tension of one atmosphere is placed in communication with another vessel containing 18 cubic feet of air, at a temperature of 53° and a tension of 30 pounds per square inch. What is the new temperature if the tension of the mixture is 20 pounds per square inch?

Ans. —20.65°.

(516) What is a vacuum? Illustrate it.

(517) What pressure per square foot is equivalent to a receiver pressure of $\frac{1}{40}$ of an inch of mercury? Ans. 1.764 lb.

(518) A horizontal cylinder, closed at one end and open

at the other, is exactly fitted with a piston having a hole in it to allow the confined air to escape. The length of the cylinder is 6 feet, and the diameter is 40 inches. The piston weighs 325 pounds, and is moved inwards until the length of the space between the cylinder head and the piston is 40 inches. (*a*) How great a force will be necessary to pull the piston out of the cylinder after the hole has been plugged, if the coefficient of friction is 14%? (*b*) To shove it in until the length of the enclosed space is 6 inches? Assume that the temperature remains constant.

Ans. { (*a*) 8,255.55 lb.
(*b*) 104,723.612 lb.

(519) There are 8.47 cubic feet of air, under a pressure of 38 pounds per square inch. If 4½ cubic feet be removed, what will be the tension of the remainder, the temperature remaining the same? Ans. 17.812 lb. per sq. in.

(520) A vessel containing 3 cubic feet of gas weighing .5 pound under a pressure of one atmosphere has compressed into it enough more of the gas to make it weigh 1 pound and 6 ounces; the temperature remaining the same, what is the new tension of the gas in pounds per square inch? Ans. 40.425 lb. per sq. in.

(521) If 4,516 cubic inches of gas having a temperature of 260° are cooled down to a temperature of 80°, the pressure remaining the same, what is the volume?

Ans. 1.96 cu. ft.

(522) If 55 cubic feet of air, under a pressure of 1¼ atmospheres, have a temperature of 88°, what is the weight?

Ans. 4.977 lb.

(523) Two vessels, the volumes of which are each 7½ cubic feet, are filled with air; the temperature is the same in both, but the tension in one is two atmospheres, and in the other 40 pounds per square inch. If all of the air in one vessel is compressed into the other, what is the tension of the mixture after it has cooled down to the original temperature? Ans. 69.4 lb. per sq. in.

(524) A solid block of wood, 48″ × 36″ × 24″, weighs in air 1,200 pounds; how much will it weigh in vacuum? The temperature of the air is 60°. Ans. 1,201.83 lb.

(525) A double-acting steam pump is required to force water to a height of 127 feet; the height of the suction is 16 feet. Allowing 25% for friction, etc., (*a*) what must be the horsepower of a steam engine to drive this pump, if the diameter of the plunger is 9 inches, stroke 12 inches, and number of strokes per minute 125? (*b*) How many gallons could be discharged per hour? Ans. { (*a*) 19.942 H. P. (*b*) 24,784.3 gal.

(526) In the last example, if the pump is single-acting, and the number of strokes per minute 100, what will be the discharge in gallons per hour? Ans. 9,914.4 gal.

(527) If you are told that the vacuum gauge of a condenser shows 23 inches vacuum, what do you understand by it? What is the pressure in the condenser?

(528) What is a pressure of one atmosphere equivalent to in pounds per square foot? Ans. 2,116.8 lb. per sq. ft.

(529) If the weight of 3 cubic feet of air at a certain temperature and under a pressure of 30 pounds per square inch is .27 pound, what is the weight of 1 cubic foot under a pressure of 65 pounds per square inch and at the same temperature? Ans. 0.195 lb.

(530) In the last example, what is the temperature of the air? Ans. 439.6°.

(531) What are the absolute temperatures corresponding to 32°, 212°, 62°, 0° and — 40°?

(532) Three and one-half pounds of air, under a pressure of 10 atmospheres, occupy a volume of 4 cubic feet. What is the temperature? Ans. — 6.583°.

(533) Fifteen cubic feet of oxygen, having a tension of 63 pounds per square inch, and 19 cubic feet of nitrogen, having a tension of three atmospheres, are mixed together in a vessel the volume of which is 25 cubic feet. The temperature of both gases and of the mixture being the same, what is the tension of the mixture? Ans. 71.316 lb.

(534) One pound of air has a temperature of 80° and a volume of 10 cubic feet; what is its tension?

Ans. 20 lb. per sq. in.

(535) If an indicator card taken from a condensing engine shows a pressure of $12\frac{1}{2}$ pounds below the atmosphere, how many inches of vacuum will the vacuum gauge show?

(536) A vacuum of 27 inches will support a column of water of what height? Ans. 30.6 ft.

(537) A certain vessel has a volume of 6.7 cubic feet. A vacuum gauge attached to it shows $17\frac{1}{2}$ inches. (*a*) How much air at atmospheric pressure will it be necessary to admit to have the vacuum gauge show 5 inches? (*b*) to show 0 inches? Ans. (*a*) $2.79\frac{1}{6}$ cu. ft.

(538) A certain vessel contains 11 cubic feet of gas weighing 2.4 pounds. If put in communication with a second vessel from which all the air has been removed, and which has a volume of 25 cubic feet, what will be the weight of a cubic foot of the gas, the temperature remaining constant?

Ans. $\frac{1}{15}$ lb.

(539) The air contained in a closed vessel, under a pressure of 12 pounds per square inch, is heated from 60° to 300°; what is its tension? Ans. 17.54 lb.

(540) What is the weight of a cubic foot of air at 212°, under a pressure of one atmosphere? Ans. .059039 lb.

(541) The diameter and stroke of the piston of an air compressor is 20 inches and 32 inches, respectively. If the discharge valve opens when the piston has completed 26 inches of its stroke, (*a*) what is the volume? (*b*) the weight? (*c*) the tension of the air discharged? Take the temperature of the outside air as 75°, and the temperature at discharge as 125°.

Ans. (*a*) 1,884.96 cu. in. = 1.0908 cu. ft.
(*b*) .43143 lb.
(*c*) 85.727 lb. per sq. in.

(542) Nineteen cubic feet of air, having a tension of 12 pounds per square inch, are mixed in a vessel which holds 30 cubic feet, with 21 cubic feet of air from another vessel. If

the tension of the mixture is 35 pounds per square inch, what was the tension of the second volume of gas?

Ans. 39.14 lb. per sq. in.

(543) A vessel containing 45 cubic feet of air at a temperature of 60° and a tension of 13 pounds per square inch is emptied into another vessel containing 60 cubic feet of air at a temperature of 80° and a tension of 17 pounds per square inch. What is the tension of the mixture if its temperature is 72°? Ans. 26.723 lb. per sq. in.

(544) What is a *partial vacuum?* If enough air is admitted to the vacuum chamber to cause the column of mercury to be 4½ inches shorter than the barometer column, how many inches of vacuum will the gauge show?

(545) By reason of a partial vacuum, a column of alcohol 16 feet high is supported. How many inches will the vacuum gauge show? Ans. 11.337 in.

(546) The stroke and diameter of the piston of a blowing engine (one form of an air compressor) are each 80 inches. The valves are so set that they will open for discharge when the tension of the compressed air becomes 9 pounds above the atmosphere. (*a*) At what point of the stroke will the valves open? (*b*) How many cubic feet of air having this tension will be discharged during one stroke of the piston, the temperature being constant throughout?

Ans. { (*a*) 30.38 in.
(*b*) 144.34 cu. ft.

(547) A certain quantity of air under a pressure of 3½ atmospheres weighs 13 pounds. After expanding under a constant temperature, the weight of the same volume is only 2 pounds. What is the tension of the air?

Ans. 7.915 lb. per sq. in.

(548) The stroke of the piston in an air compressor is 60 inches. When the piston has traveled 50 inches, what is the tension (the temperature at discharge being 130°) of the enclosed air, assuming that the delivery valves do not open until this point is reached? The original temperature is 60°. Ans. 100.07 lb. per sq. in.

(549) A pound of air has a temperature of 127° and a tension of 27 pounds per square inch. What is its volume?
Ans. 8.055 cu. ft.

(550) The weight of a certain body of air having a tension of 4,000 pounds per square foot and a temperature of 100° is .5 pound. What is its volume? Ans. 3.735 cu. ft.

(551) Forty cubic feet of air having a temperature of 100° and a tension of 90 pounds per square inch are mixed with 57 cubic feet having a temperature of 130° and a tension of 80 pounds per square inch. The tension of the mixture is 120 pounds per square inch and the temperature is 110°. What is the volume? Ans. 67.248 cu. ft.

(552) If a bottle fitted with a rubber bulb, as shown in Fig. 199, be filled with water until the air in the bulb occupies a space of 20 cubic inches under a tension of exactly one atmosphere, what will be the difference between the internal and external pressure on the bottom of the bottle after the bulb is squeezed until the space is only $\frac{1}{4}$ of the original volume? The opening of the neck of the bulb is $\frac{1}{4}$ of a square inch, the bottom of the bottle is 3 inches in diameter, and the depth of the water is 12 inches.
Ans. 314.793 lb.

(553) Four cubic feet of air is heated under a constant pressure from 40° to 115°. What is the resulting volume?
Ans. 4.6 cu. ft.

ELEMENTARY GRAPHICAL STATICS.

(ARTS. 1089–1183.)

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

(554) A simple beam 20 feet long between supports carries a load of 4 tons, at a distance of 8 feet from the left support. Compute (*a*) the reaction R_1 at the left support; (*b*) the reaction R_2 at the right support; (*c*) the bending moment in foot-tons under the load, and (*d*) the bending moment in inch-pounds at the same point.

Ans. { (*a*) 2.4 tons.
(*b*) 1.6 tons.
(*c*) 19.2 ft.-tons.
(*d*) 460,800 in.-lb. }

(555) Find, graphically, the magnitude, direction, and

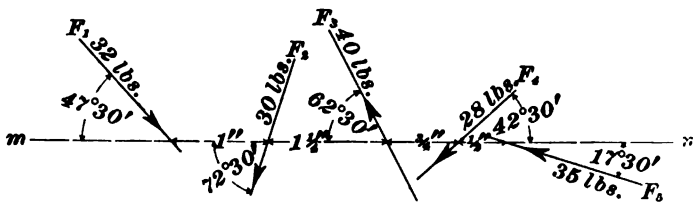

FIG. 3.

position of the resultant of the forces shown in Fig. 3.

NOTE.—In Fig. 3, and occasionally in subsequent figures, the directions and positions of the forces are designated by means of the reference line *m n*, which is drawn simply to locate the forces. The directions of the forces are shown by their angles with the reference line, and the distances between them are measured along it. When the directions of the forces are not shown by a figure, but are described by means of their angle with the reference line *m n*, the reference line is considered to be horizontal and the angles are given in accordance with the note explaining Fig. 116 of Art. **879.**

(556) How many and what kinds of motion can a force produce?

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(557) Find the resultant moment of the forces shown in Fig. 4, about the point C.

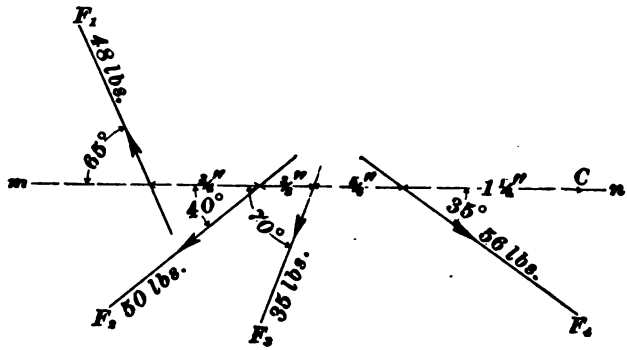

FIG. 4.

(558) Find the resultant of the forces shown in Fig. 5, and resolve this resultant into two forces whose lines of action will be parallel to the line of action of the resultant

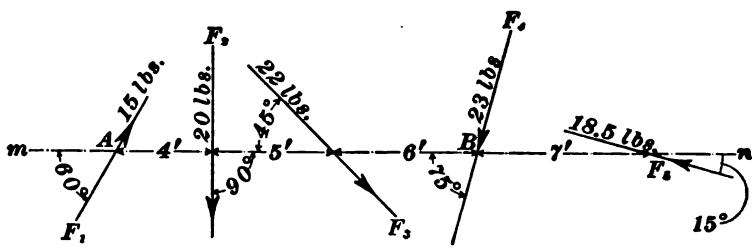

FIG. 5.

and pass through the points A and B, which are the respective points where the forces F_1 and F_4 intersect the horizontal reference line $m\ n$.

(559) Two forces, $F_1 = 20$ lb. and $F_2 = 10$ lb., act upon a body at the same point; the angle between the lines of action of the forces is 120°, and the sense of each force is towards the body acted upon. What is the magnitude of the resultant force acting upon the body? Ans. 17.3 lb.

(560) Three forces, $F_1 = 30$ lb., $F_2 = 60$ lb., and $F_3 = 90$ lb., act upon a body at the same point; the forces are inclined

at angles of 30°, 60°, and 90°, respectively. (See note under Question 555). What is (*a*) the magnitude, and (*b*) the angle of their resultant? Ans. { (*a*) 166.6 lb. (*b*) 70° 20′, nearly.

(561) What is the closing line of a force polygon? Does the closing line represent the resultant of the given forces? What does the closing line represent? What line represents the resultant?

(562) A beam is 18 feet long between supports, and carries loads of 900 and 1,200 pounds, at distances of 9 and 12 feet, respectively, from the left support R_1. Compute the values of the two reactions R_1 and R_2. Ans. { $R_1 =$ 850 lb. $R_2 =$ 1,250 lb.

(563) A structure 100 feet long between supports carries loads F_2, F_3, and F_4, each equal to 1,200 pounds, at points distant 40, 60, and 80 feet, respectively, from the left support R_1. By the principles of moments compute (*a*) the values of the reactions R_1 and R_2, and (*b*) the bending moment (in foot-pounds) at the center of the span, i. e., midway between the supports.

Ans. { (*a*) $R_1 = 1{,}440$ lb.; $R_2 = 2{,}160$ lb. (*b*) 60,000 ft.-lb.

(564) A rope is fastened between two posts 20 feet apart, and supports a weight of 40 pounds midway between the posts, as shown in Fig. 6; the sag in the rope at the center is 8 feet. What is (*a*) the stress in the rope, and (*b*) the horizontal pull upon the top of the post? The weight of the rope itself is neglected.

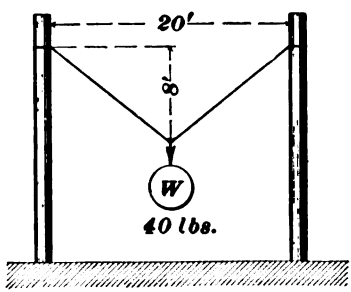

FIG. 6.

Ans. { (*a*) 32 lb. (slightly more). (*b*) 25 lb.

(565) If in the preceding problem the rope is fastened to each post at a distance of 18 feet above the ground, what is

the bending moment upon each post at the surface of the ground? Ans. 450 ft.-lb.

(566) Fig. 7 represents a derrick carrying a weight of 9,000 pounds. Construct a stress diagram for the derrick in the position shown. Determine the amount and character of the stress (*a*) in the vertical mast; (*b*) in the arm or boom, and (*c*) in the rope between the boom and mast. Determine also (*d*) the stress in the guy rope *g*; (*e*) the horizontal, and (*f*) the vertical component of the reaction at the foot of the mast.

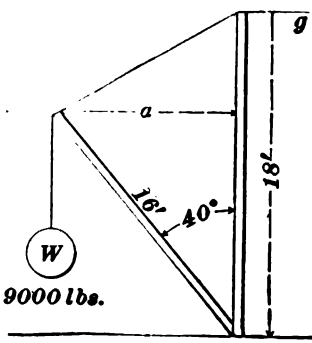

FIG. 7.

Ans.
(*a*) + 2,870 lb.
(*b*) + 8,000 lb.
(*c*) − 5,890 lb.
(*d*) 5,140 lb.
(*e*) 5,140 lb.
(*f*) 9,400 lb.

(567) The truss shown in Fig. 8 is to carry a load of 12,000 pounds at the center. Assuming the internal forces

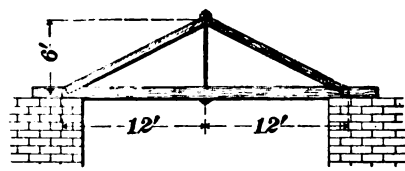

FIG. 8.

to act along the center lines of the several members, construct the stress diagram for the truss, and determine the stress in each member.

(568) The truss shown in Fig. 9 carries loads W_1 and W_2, each equal to 4,200 pounds. Compute the values of the reactions R_1 and R_2, and draw a stress diagram for the truss, determining the stress in each member.

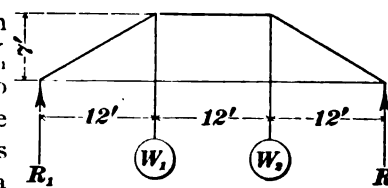

FIG. 9.

(569) A weight W is hung from the points a and c by means of the rope $a\ b\ c$, Fig. 10. The stresses in $a\ b$ and $b\ c$, caused by the weight, are 120 and 72 pounds, respectively. What is the weight? Ans. 96 lb.

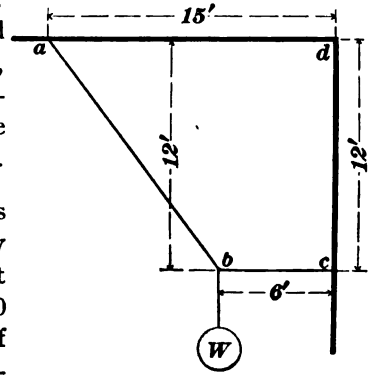

FIG. 10.

(570) Fig. 11 represents the end view of an ordinary freight car. The total weight of car and load is 60,000 pounds, and the position of the resultant of the horizontal wind pressure of 1,000 pounds against one side of the car is 8 feet above the top of the rails. What is the load upon each rail, assuming the rails to be 5 feet apart between centers?

Ans. 31,600 lb. and 28,400 lb.

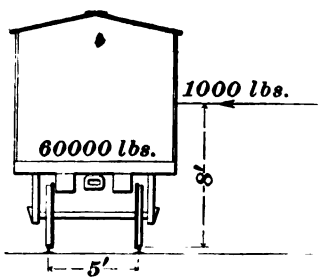

FIG. 11.

(571) A beam is 28 feet long; the left-hand support R_1 is at the end of the beam, but the right-hand support R_2 is 8 feet from the end of the beam, or 20 feet from the left-hand support. The beam itself weighs 40 pounds per foot, and a load W equal to 840 pounds is placed upon the right-hand, or cantilever, end of the beam. Construct the equilibrium polygon for the load, including the weight of beam, and determine (a) the two reactions, and (b) the maximum bending moment.

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ R_2 = 1{,}960 \text{ lb.} \\ (b)\ 8{,}000 \text{ ft.-lb.} \end{cases}$

(572) In what respect do the equilibrant and the resultant of any number of forces correspond? In what respects do they differ?

(573) When is a moment said to be positive and when negative? In a simple beam, is the moment of the right reaction about the left point of support positive or negative?

(574) In any structure, what is the resisting moment? What relation do bending moment and resisting moment bear to each other?

(575) A load of 3,600 pounds is placed at the apex of a pair of rafters having the pitch shown in Fig. 12. Determine

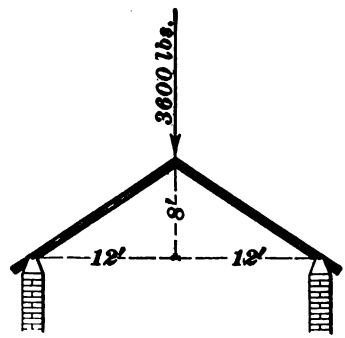

FIG. 12.

(*a*) the vertical reactions, (*b*) the horizontal (outward) thrust at each support, and (*c*) the stress in each rafter.

Ans. (*a*) 1,800 lb.
(*b*) 2,700 lb.
(*c*) 3,240 lb.

(576) See Question 566, Fig. 7. Suppose the boom of the derrick is drawn up until the distance $a = 8$ feet, and suppose the guy rope g makes an angle of 60° with the vertical mast. What will be the values (*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), (*e*), and (*f*), respectively?

Ans. (*a*) + 4,380 lb.
(*b*) + 8,000 lb.
(*c*) − 4,500 lb.
(*d*) 4,620 lb.
(*e*) 4,000 lb.
(*f*) 11,310 lb.

(577) What unknown quantities can be determined by drawing the force polygon?

(578) In Question 569, if the weight (96 pounds) and the distances *b c* and *c d* remain the same, but the distance *a d* is increased to 22 feet, what will be the pull in the cords *b a* and *b c* respectively?

Ans. 160 lb. and 128 lb.

(579) If a load $W = 200$ pounds is placed at *c*, Fig. 13, determine (*a*) the stress in the member *a c*, and (*b*) the stress in the rod *d c*.

Ans. { (*a*) 400 lb. (*b*) 448 lb.

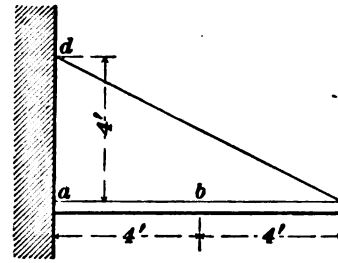

FIG. 13.

(580) If, in addition to the load of 200 pounds, placed at *c*, Fig. 13, a load of 200 pounds is placed at *b*, and a load of 25 pounds per foot is distributed over the entire length of the beam, determine (*a*) the direct stress in *a c*, (*b*) the stress in *d c*, and (*c*) the maximum bending moment in inch-pounds in *a c*.

Ans. { (*a*) 800 lb. (*b*) 896 lb., nearly. (*c*) 7,200 in.-lb.

(581) Fig. 14 represents a gin-pole 50 feet long, by means of which is supported a weight of 12,000 pounds. The angle of the gin-pole with the horizontal is 60°, and that of the guy rope is 30° as shown. Determine (*a*) the stress in the gin-pole, and (*b*) the stress in the guy rope.

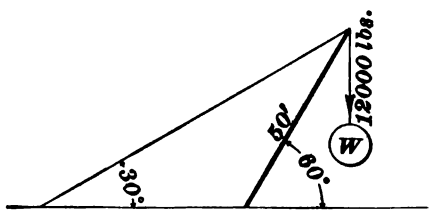

FIG. 14.

Ans. { (*a*) 20,780 lb. (*b*) 12,000 lb.

(582) Two forces F_1 and F_2 act upon and towards a body at the same point; their lines of action are inclined at angles of 30° and 150° respectively, and the forces are balanced by a vertical force of 100 pounds. (*a*) What are

the magnitudes of F_1 and F_2? (*b*) What is the angle of the equilibrant? Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ F_1 = 100 \text{ lb.};\ F_2 = 100 \text{ lb.} \\ (b)\ 270°. \end{cases}$

(583) The forces $F_1 = 40$, $F_2 = 30$, $F_3 = 60$, $F_4 = 150$, and $F_5 = 120$, all in pounds, act upon and towards a common point; their angles with a horizontal line are 40°, 30°, 60°, 150°, and 120°, respectively. What are the magnitude and angle of their resultant? Ans. 290.6 lb. and 111°.

(584) The roof truss of Fig. 15 is acted upon by vertical forces as shown. Compute the reactions and draw the stress diagram for the truss, determining the stress in each member. Use Bow's notation.

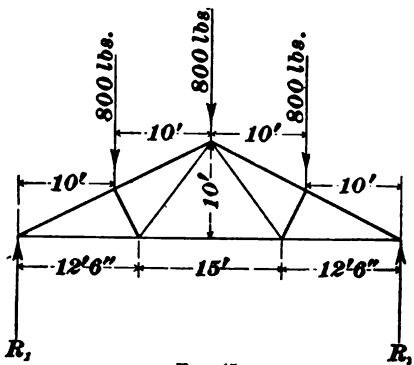

FIG. 15.

Ans. $\begin{cases} R_1 = 1{,}200 \text{ lb.} \\ R_2 = 1{,}200 \text{ lb.} \end{cases}$

(585) What is meant by the term *direction of a force?* Can a simple line represent a force in magnitude and direction? How may the direction of a force be represented?

(586) Where should the arrow-head which indicates the sense of a force be marked upon the line which represents the force? How may tension be distinguished from compression in a stress diagram?

(587) Four forces having the magnitudes and directions shown in Fig. 16 act at the points shown upon a beam 40 feet between supports. Construct the force diagram and equilibrium polygon and determine (*a*) the amounts and directions of the reactions, and (*b*) the maximum bending moment. (In the figure the reactions are, for convenience, drawn vertical, but their directions are not known.)

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ R_1 = 1{,}770 \text{ lb.};\ R_2 = 1{,}960 \text{ lb.} \\ (b)\ 22{,}600 \text{ ft.-lb.} \end{cases}$

(588) Construct the moment diagram for the vertical

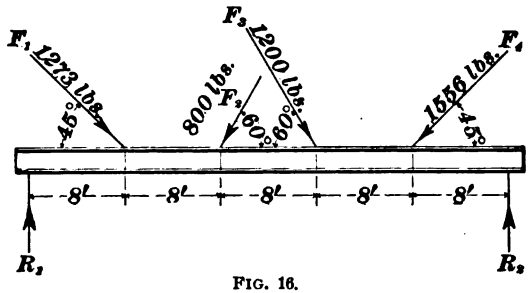

FIG. 16.

components of the forces shown in Fig. 16, so that its closing line will be horizontal.

(589) A beam is 25 feet long between supports, and carries a load W at a distance of 5 feet from the left support. The bending moment at the load, caused by the reaction from the load alone, is 480,000 inch-pounds. What is the magnitude of the load? Ans. 10,000 lb.

(590) A beam 30 feet long weighs 40 pounds per foot. The left-hand support R_1 is at the end of the beam, and the right-hand support R_2 is 10 feet from the opposite end, i. e., the supports are 20 feet apart. The beam carries a uniform load of 60 pounds per foot over its entire length, a load $W_1 = 8{,}000$ pounds midway between the supports, and a load $W_2 = 2{,}000$ pounds upon the right-hand end of the beam. Construct the equilibrium polygon; determine (*a*) the amount of each reaction, and (*b*) the maximum bending moment.

Ans. $\begin{cases} (a)\ R_1 = 3{,}750 \text{ lb.}; \\ \quad\ \ R_2 = 9{,}250 \text{ lb.} \\ (b)\ 32{,}500 \text{ ft.-lb.} \end{cases}$

(591) Determine the stress in each member of the frame, Fig. 17, and in the cable *a*. What are the amount and direction of the reaction R?

Ans. $R = 5{,}000$ lb.

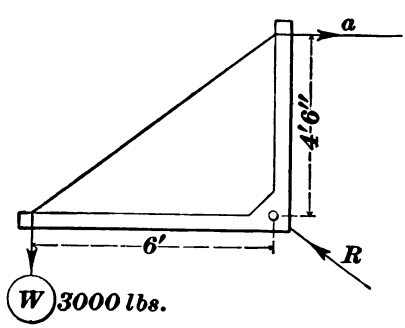

FIG. 17.

(592) Fig. 18 represents a common form of crane. Determine the stress in each member, and the horizontal force H, for the dimensions and load shown. What is (a) the amount, and (b) the inclination of the reaction R?

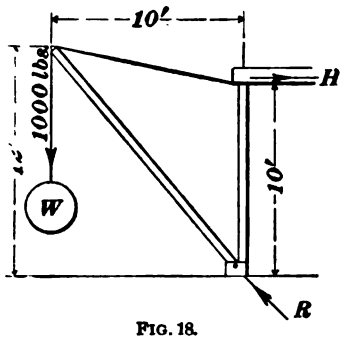

FIG. 18.

Ans. { (a) 1,410 lb., nearly.
(b) 315°.

(593) A beam is 12 feet long between its two supports and carries a load of 600 pounds. What is the maximum bending moment M and the amount of the left reaction R_1, if the load is (a) 3 feet from the left support; (b) 4 feet from the same; (c) in the middle of the span, and (d) uniformly distributed?

Ans. { (a) $M = 1{,}350$ ft.-lb.; $R_1 = 450$ lb.
(b) $M = 1{,}600$ ft.-lb.; $R_1 = 400$ lb.
(c) $M = 1{,}800$ ft.-lb.; $R_1 = 300$ lb.
(d) $M = 900$ ft.-lb.; $R_1 = 300$ lb.

(594) What is the lever arm of a moment? What is the center of rotation?

(595) The truss shown in Fig. 19 carries the loads W_1, W_2, and W_3, each equal to 12,000 pounds. Compute the

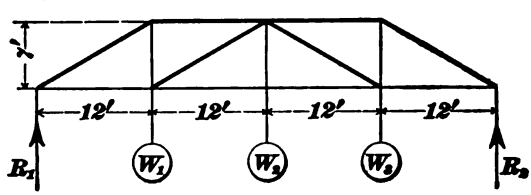

FIG. 19.

reactions and draw the stress diagram for the truss, determining the magnitude and character of the stress in each member. Ans. $R_1 = 18{,}000$ lb.; $R_2 = 18{,}000$ lb.

(596) Assuming all conditions the same as in the preceding example, except that $W_1 = 2{,}000$ lb., instead of 12,000

lb., again compute the reactions and draw the stress diagram, determining the stress in each member.

Ans. $R_1 = 10{,}500$ lb.; $R_2 = 15{,}500$ lb.

(597) The pulley by which a machine is driven is 8 inches in diameter; it is driven by a belt from a shaft pulley 32 inches in diameter. The moment at the center of the shaft pulley necessary to drive the machine is 960 inch-pounds. (*a*) What is the pull or stress in the belt caused by the moment? (*b*) What is the moment at the center of the small or driven pulley?

Ans. { (*a*) 60 lb. (*b*) 240 in.-lb.

(598) Refer to Fig. 19, and Example 595. It was found that the left reaction $R_1 = 18{,}000$ lb. (*a*) Compute the bending moment at the joint 12 feet from R_1 (at which W_1 is supported). (*b*) If this bending moment is divided by the depth of the truss, what is the result? (*c*) Does this result equal the stress obtained in the solution of Example 595 for any member of the truss, and what member?

Ans. (*a*) 216,000 ft.-lb.

(599) Fig. 20 represents a form of crane sometimes built. The entire weight of 5,000 pounds is carried at the lower reaction R, the upper reaction H being simply the horizontal force necessary to resist the overturning moment of the load. Draw the stress diagram, determining the stress in each member of the crane and also the amount of the reactions H and R, the weight of the crane itself being neglected.

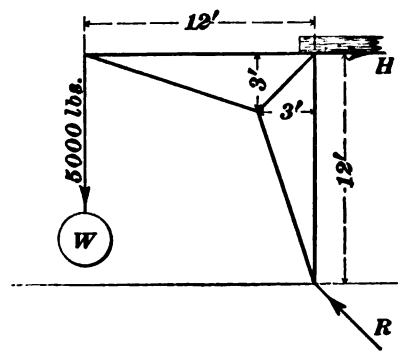

FIG. 20.

Ans. $H = 5{,}000$ lb.; $R = 7{,}070$ lb., nearly.

(600) Five forces, F_1, F_2, F_3, F_4, and F_5, each equal to 200 pounds, act upon and towards the same point; their angles, with a horizontal line, are, respectively, 60°, 120°,

180°, 240°, and 300°. What is (*a*) the magnitude, and (*b*) the angle of their equilibrant? Ans. (*a*) 200 lb.; (*b*) 0°.

(601) Four forces F_1, F_2, F_3, and F_4, each equal to 400 pounds, act upon and towards the same point; their angles are 45°, 135°, 225°, and 315°, respectively. Determine the magnitude and angle of their equilibrant.

(602) If in the preceding problem the forces F_3 and F_4 were removed and the body acted upon by the forces F_1 and F_2 only, what would be the magnitude and angle of the force necessary to equilibrate F_1 and F_2?

(603) Determine the amount and character of the stress in each member of the truss shown in Fig. 21, which is acted upon by five equal vertical forces of 900 pounds each.

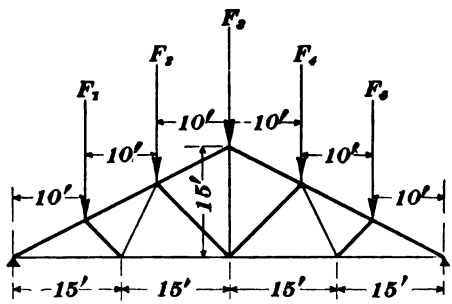

FIG. 21.

(604) A beam 28 feet long is supported at points 6 feet from each end. The weight of the beam is 60 pounds per foot, and it supports a uniformly distributed load of 1,440 pounds per foot over its entire length. Construct the equilibrium polygon and determine (*a*) the value of the two reactions R_1 and R_2; (*b*) the maximum positive bending moment, and (*c*) the maximum negative bending moment.

Ans. (*a*) $R_1 = 21{,}000$ lb.; $R_2 = 21{,}000$ lb.
(*b*) $+21{,}000$ ft.-lb.
(*c*) $-27{,}000$ ft.-lb.

(605) A beam of the same length and supported at the same points as the beam of the preceding problem carries a load of 8,000 pounds at each end beyond the point of support, and in the middle a load W_2 equal to 12,000 pounds. Neglecting the weight of the beam, determine (*a*) the maximum positive bending moment, and (*b*) the maximum negative bending moment. Ans. (*a*) 0; (*b*) —48,000 ft.-lb.

(606) If the equal loads W_1 and W_3 are removed from the ends of the beam, but the load W_2 remains upon the middle, what is the maximum bending moment, the weight of the beam being neglected? Ans. 48,000 ft.-lb.

(607) With the loads W_1 and W_3 upon the ends of the beam, but the load W_2 removed from the middle, determine the maximum bending moment, neglecting the weight of the beam. Ans. — 48,000 ft.-lb.

(608) With W_2 (=12,000 lb.) upon the middle of the beam and W_1 (= 8,000 lb.) upon the left end only, find (*a*) the reactions, and (*b*) the maximum bending moment, the weight of the beam being still neglected.

$$\text{Ans.} \begin{cases} (a)\ R_1 = 17{,}000 \text{ lb.};\ R_2 = 3{,}000 \text{ lb.} \\ (b)\ -48{,}000 \text{ ft.-lb.} \end{cases}$$

(609) A beam weighing 40 pounds per foot is 10 feet long between supports; it carries a uniformly distributed load of 1,560 pounds per foot upon the entire 10 feet. Construct the equilibrium polygon and determine (*a*) the value of the reactions R_1 and R_2, and (*b*) the maximum bending moment.

$$\text{Ans.} \begin{cases} (a)\ R_1 = R_2 = 8{,}000 \text{ lb.} \\ (b)\ 20{,}000 \text{ ft.-lb.} \end{cases}$$

(610) In the preceding example, the total load supported by the beam is $(1{,}560 + 40)\ 10 = 16{,}000$ lb. If a weight of this magnitude were upon the center of the beam, what would be (*a*) the value of each reaction, and (*b*) the maximum bending moment, neglecting the weight of the beam itself?

$$\text{Ans.} \begin{cases} (a)\ R_1 = R_2 = 8{,}000 \text{ lb.} \\ (b)\ 40{,}000 \text{ ft.-lb.} \end{cases}$$

(611) What is a resultant moment? What is the bending moment at any point in a structure?

(612) What are concurring forces? What are non-concurring forces?

(613) Two forces F_1 and F_2 act towards the same point. $F_1 = 1{,}000$ lb. acts at an angle of 30°, and $F_2 = 866$ lb. acts at an angle of 180° with the horizontal reference line. What is (*a*) the magnitude, and (*b*) the angle of their equilibrant?

$$\text{Ans.} \begin{cases} (a)\ 500 \text{ lb.} \\ (b)\ 270^\circ. \end{cases}$$

(614) A positive moment is produced by a force of 80 pounds acting upon a lever arm of 6 feet; it is equilibrated by the negative moment of a force of 120 pounds. What is the lever arm of the latter force? Ans. 4 ft.

(615) What is a foot-pound? What is an inch-pound? How many foot-pounds in 60 inch-pounds?

(616) By means of what assumption are problems in statics solved?

(617) A beam 12 feet long projects 4 feet beyond the right support R_2; the left support R_1 is at the end of the beam. A load W_2 is placed upon the overhanging end of the beam, and a load W_1 is placed 3 feet from the left support. Neglecting the weight of the beam, the reaction of the right support R_2 is 540 pounds, and the left reaction R_1 is zero. What are the amounts of the loads W_1 and W_2?

Ans. $W_1 = 240$ lb.; $W_2 = 300$ lb.

(618) With the loads and distances the same as in the preceding problem, (*a*) what and (*b*) where is the maximum bending moment? Ans. (*a*) — 1,200 ft.-lb.

(619) Define Graphical Statics.

(620) What is a truss?

(621) Define tension and compression.

(622) The plunger of a pump, driven as shown in Fig.

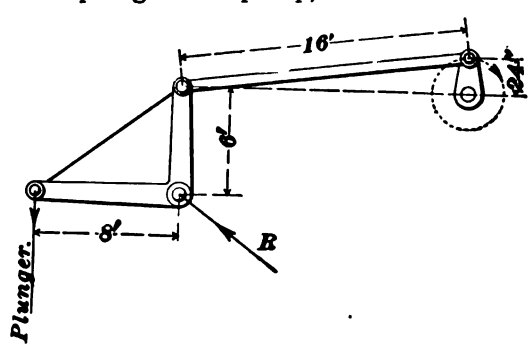

FIG. 22.

22, is assumed to be vertical when the driving crank is vertical, as shown. As the crank is pulling upon the

connecting-rod in this position it is assumed that the moment at the center of the crank-shaft is 1,440,000 inch-pounds. What is the pull (*a*) upon the connecting-rod, and (*b*) upon the plunger? Ans. { (*a*) 60,475 lb. (*b*) 45,000 lb.

(623) With all conditions the same as in the preceding problem, determine the stress in the three members of the frame, and the amount of the reaction *R*.

(624) A pine block 6 inches square and 12 inches long is standing on end upon a level surface. What amount of steady pressure *F* applied horizontally at the top will tip the block over, assuming it to weigh 6 pounds? Ans. $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb.

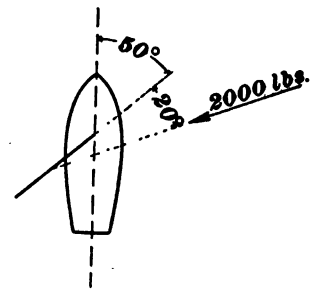

FIG. 23.

(625) A sailboat is tacking against the wind. The sail is set at an angle of 50 degrees with the course of the boat, and the wind is at an angle of 70° with the boat's course, or 20° with the sail. See Fig. 23. In this condition, assuming the sail to be a level surface, and the force of the wind against the sail to be 2,000 pounds, what is the forward pressure or propelling power imparted to the boat? Ans. 524 lb.

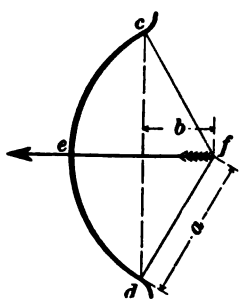

FIG. 24.

(626) In shooting an arrow from a bow, if the string is pulled back at the center *f* until the distance *b* is one-half the distance *a* (see Fig. 24), and the tension in the string is 80 pounds, what is the force imparted to the arrow? Ans. 80 lb.

(627) A single load $W = 4{,}000$ lb. at the center of a beam causes a bending moment of 240,000 inch-pounds. How long is the beam in feet? Ans. 20 ft.

(628) If the same load were upon the same span, but at

a distance of 5 feet from the left support R_1, what would be the maximum bending moment in inch-pounds?

Ans. 180,000 in.-lb.

(629) In what proportions is a load upon a simple structure transferred to the reactions? What is the value of each reaction?

(630) What is a statical couple, and what is its effect?

(631) The truss represented in Fig. 25 is assumed to be loaded with five loads in the manner shown; each load $W =$

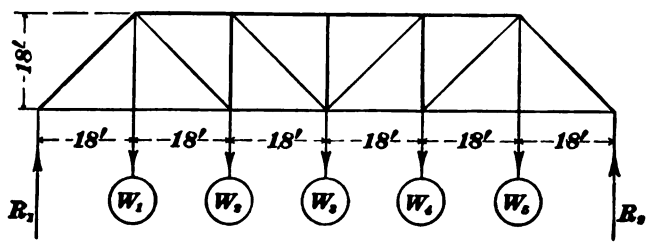

FIG. 25.

6,000 lb. (*a*) Compute the values of the reactions R_1 and R_2, and (*b*) draw a stress diagram for the truss thus loaded, determining the value of each stress.

Ans. (*a*) $R_1 = 15{,}000$ lb.; $R_2 = 15{,}000$ lb.

(632) Consider the loads W_1, W_2, and W_3 to be removed from the truss represented in Fig. 25; the truss being loaded with W_4 and W_5 only. (*a*) Compute the reactions, and (*b*) draw the stress diagram, determining the stress in each member of the truss when thus loaded.

Ans. (*a*) $R_1 = 3{,}000$ lb.; $R_2 = 9{,}000$ lb.

(633) Consider a structure of the same length as the truss shown in Fig. 25 to be loaded in the same manner and with the same system of loads. (*a*) Without reference to the form of the structure, construct the force diagram and the equilibrium polygon for the loads in the respective positions, determining graphically the reactions, and also the bending moment at the point of application of each load. (*b*) Divide each bending moment thus obtained by the height of the truss shown in Fig. 25, and compare the

results with the stresses obtained for the upper and lower horizontal members in the solution of Example 631.

NOTE.—This comparison between the results should be carefully noticed and remembered.

(634) Consider Fig. 26 to represent a truss sustaining five equal loads as shown, without having any system of diagonal bracing. (Bow's notation is used to designate the

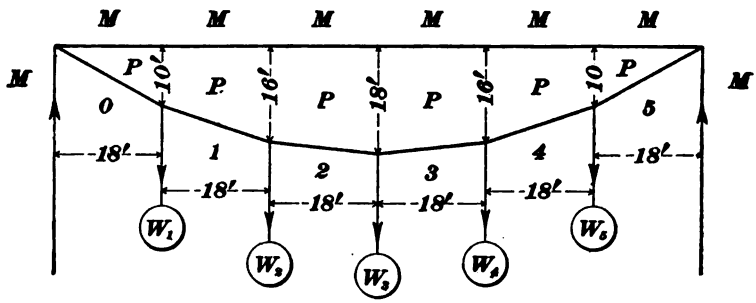

FIG. 26.

members, and for clearness the letters P and M are several times repeated.) Assuming each load W to equal 6,000 pounds, compute the values of the reactions and draw the stress diagram for the truss. Compare this stress diagram with the force diagram of the preceding example.

(635) In Example 633, consider the five loads to be upon the span in the respective positions, without reference to the structure. (*a*) Compute the bending moment at W_1, W_2, and W_3, and (*b*) compare with the bending moments obtained graphically in Example 633.

$$\text{Ans.} \quad (a) \begin{cases} \text{At } W_1,\ M = 270{,}000 \text{ ft.-lb.} \\ \text{At } W_2,\ M = 432{,}000 \text{ ft.-lb.} \\ \text{At } W_3,\ M = 486{,}000 \text{ ft.-lb.} \end{cases}$$

(636) A force F_1 acts horizontally and to the right; that is, it makes an angle of 180° with the horizontal reference line, and a force F_2 makes an angle of 45° with the same. $F_1 = 100$ lb., $F_2 = 79\frac{1}{2}$ lb., and their lines of action if prolonged would meet. What is the magnitude of their resultant? Ans. $71\frac{1}{4}$ lb., nearly.

(637) What is a simple structure? What is a cantilever?

(638) When is a bending moment considered positive, and when is it considered negative?

(639) The truss shown in Fig. 27 supports three loads, W_1, W_2, and W_3, each equal to 12,000 pounds. The posi-

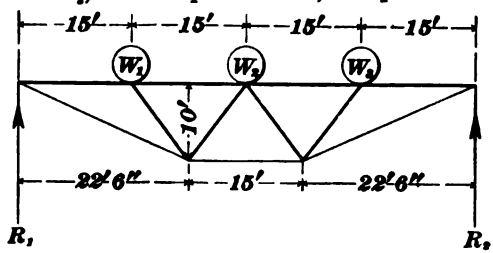

FIG 27.

tions of the loads are shown in the figure. Compute the values of the reactions, and draw the stress diagram for the truss, determining the stress in each member.

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